

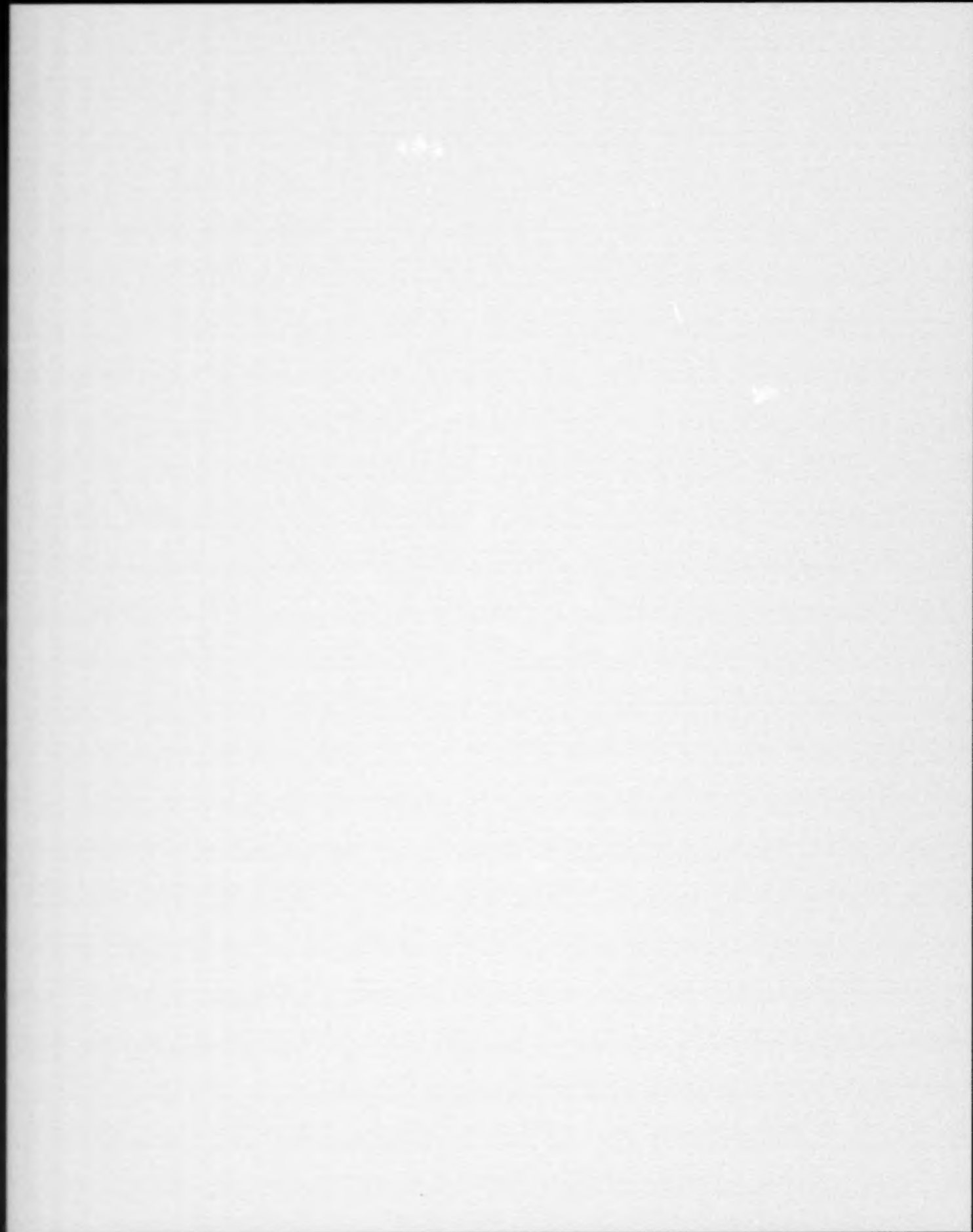
**Canada's Residential Schools:
Missing Children and
Unmarked Burials**

**The Final Report of the
Truth and Reconciliation
Commission of Canada**

Volume 4

Canada's Residential Schools

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Published for the
Truth and Reconciliation Commission

by

McGill-Queen's University Press
Montreal & Kingston • London • Chicago

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2015

Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada

Website: www.trc.ca

ISBN 978-0-7735-4657-8 (v. 4 : bound).

ISBN 978-0-7735-4658-5 (v. 4 : paperback).

Printed in Canada on acid-free paper

An index to this volume of the final report is available online. Please visit http://nctr.ca/trc_reports.php

Library and Archives Canada Cataloguing in Publication

Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada

[Canada's residential schools]

Canada's residential schools : the final report of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada.

(McGill-Queen's Native and northern series ; 80-86)

Includes bibliographical references and index.

Contents: v. 1. The history. Part 1, origins to 1939 — The history. Part 2, 1939 to 2000 — v. 2. The Inuit and northern experience — v. 3. The Métis experience — v. 4. The missing children and unmarked burials report — v. 5. The legacy — v. 6. Reconciliation

Issued in print and electronic formats.

ISBN 978-0-7735-4649-3 (v. 1, pt. 1 : bound).

ISBN 978-0-7735-4650-9 (v. 1, pt. 1 : paperback).

ISBN 978-0-7735-4651-6 (v. 1, pt. 2 : bound).

ISBN 978-0-7735-4652-3 (v. 1, pt. 2 : paperback).

ISBN 978-0-7735-4653-0 (v. 2 : bound).

ISBN 978-0-7735-4654-7 (v. 2 : paperback).

ISBN 978-0-7735-4655-4 (v. 3 : bound).

ISBN 978-0-7735-4656-1 (v. 3 : paperback).

ISBN 978-0-7735-4657-8 (v. 4 : bound).

ISBN 978-0-7735-4658-5 (v. 4 : paperback).

ISBN 978-0-7735-4659-2 (v. 5 : bound).

ISBN 978-0-7735-4660-8 (v. 5 : paperback).

ISBN 978-0-7735-4661-5 (v. 6 : bound).

ISBN 978-0-7735-4662-2 (v. 6 : paperback).

ISBN 978-0-7735-9817-1 (v. 1, pt. 1 : ePDF).

ISBN 978-0-7735-9818-8 (v. 1, pt. 1 : ePUB).

ISBN 978-0-7735-9819-5 (v. 1, pt. 2 : ePDF).

ISBN 978-0-7735-9820-1 (v. 1, pt. 2 : ePUB).

ISBN 978-0-7735-9821-8 (v. 2 : ePDF).

ISBN 978-0-7735-9822-5 (v. 2 : ePUB).

ISBN 978-0-7735-9823-2 (v. 3 : ePDF).

ISBN 978-0-7735-9824-9 (v. 3 : ePUB).

ISBN 978-0-7735-9825-6 (v. 4 : ePDF).

ISBN 978-0-7735-9826-3 (v. 4 : ePUB).

ISBN 978-0-7735-9827-0 (v. 5 : ePDF).

ISBN 978-0-7735-9828-7 (v. 5 : ePUB).

ISBN 978-0-7735-9829-4 (v. 6 : ePDF).

ISBN 978-0-7735-9830-0 (v. 6 : ePUB)

1. Native peoples—Canada—Residential schools. 2. Native peoples—Education—Canada.

3. Native peoples—Canada—Government relations. 4. Native peoples—Canada—Social conditions.

5. Native peoples—Canada—History. I. Title. II. Series: McGill-Queen's Native and northern series ; 80-86

E96.5.T78 2016

971.004'97

C2015-905971-2

C2015-905972-0

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Executive summary

The Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada's "Missing Children and Unmarked Burials Project" is a systematic effort to record and analyse the deaths at the schools, and the presence and condition of student cemeteries, within the regulatory context in which the schools were intended to operate. The project's research supports the following conclusions:

- The Commission has identified 3,200 deaths on the Truth and Reconciliation Commission's Register of Confirmed Deaths of Named Residential School Students and the Register of Confirmed Deaths of Unnamed Residential School Students.
- For just under one-third of these deaths (32%), the government and the schools did not record the name of the student who died.
- For just under one-quarter of these deaths (23%), the government and the schools did not record the gender of the student who died.
- For just under one-half of these deaths (49%), the government and the schools did not record the cause of death.
- Aboriginal children in residential schools died at a far higher rate than school-aged children in the general population.
- For most of the history of the schools, the practice was not to send the bodies of students who died at schools to their home communities.
- For the most part, the cemeteries that the Commission documented are abandoned, disused, and vulnerable to accidental disturbance.
- The federal government never established an adequate set of standards and regulations to guarantee the health and safety of residential school students.
- The federal government never adequately enforced the minimal standards and regulations that it did establish.
- The failure to establish and enforce adequate regulations was largely a function of the government's determination to keep residential school costs to a minimum.

- The highest recorded death and violence statistics worldwide, coupled with the failure to adequately fund the schools, resulted in an increasingly high death rate at residential schools.

These findings are in keeping with statements that former students and the parents of former students gave to the Commission. They spoke of children who went to school and never returned. The tragedy of the loss of children was compounded by the fact that burial places were distant or even unknown. Many Aboriginal people have unanswered questions about what happened to their children or relatives while they were attending residential school. The work that the Commission has begun in identifying and commemorating those students who died at school and their families needs to be finished.

The work that the Commission has commenced is far from complete. The National Residential School Students Death Register established by the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada represents the first national effort to record the names of the students who died at school. There is a need for continued work on the register. There are many relevant documents that have yet to be reviewed. There is a need for the development and implementation of a national strategy for the documentation, maintenance, commemoration, and protection of residential school connections. Such a program, carried out in close consultation with the concerned Aboriginal communities, is necessary to properly honour the memory of the children who died in Canada's residential schools.

Introduction

Truth told a long shadow over Canada's residential schools. In her account of her years as a student at the Ojé-Sagette, Saskatchewan, school in the early twentieth century, Louise Martin wrote of one year when tuberculosis was rampant through the school:

There was a death every month on the girls' side and some of the boys went also. The ones always there to see the girls who had died. The nurses immediately had them dressed in light blue and they always looked so peaceful and angelic. We were led to believe that their souls had gone to heaven, and this would somehow lessen the grief and sadness we felt in the loss of one of our little schoolmates.

Even Martin had similar memories of his time at the Mount Hope school in Chazy, Ontario. He recalled:

the silent killer we showed up amongst the children as some quiet, unobtrusive but would grow unusually quiet and hollow... As the creeping infection the year came over him, he began to lose interest in all kinds of activity. He coughed

These measures provide a strategic approach to managing the impact of environmental change on the economy. They focus on the key sectors of the economy, such as agriculture, industry, and services, and aim to reduce the risk of damage to these sectors. The measures also aim to improve the resilience of the economy to environmental change, by encouraging the development of sustainable practices and the use of renewable resources. This approach is essential for ensuring the long-term sustainability of the economy and the well-being of the population.

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Abstract: *Abstracts are not meant to be a replacement for the original research paper. They are intended to facilitate the selection of relevant research papers for reading. The abstract should be prepared in a form that is suitable for the journal in which the paper is to be published.*

Students will achieve the purpose of the assignment by using the following contributions to the development of a well-considered, in-depth, and original analysis including the historical, political, geographic and economic aspects of the system. The class will also compare the development of the system with present-day developments and the impact of future changes on the ongoing impact of the development of the system.

The implementation of a specific "winning" solution can be described through four main steps that have been used for the development of successful high-tech companies. The steps are: (1) the selection of the business focus; (2) the selection of the business model; (3) the selection of the business strategy; and (4) the selection of the business structure. The selection of the business focus is the first step in the process of creating a new business. It involves the selection of a specific market or industry to enter. The selection of the business model is the second step. It involves the selection of a specific way to deliver value to customers. The selection of the business strategy is the third step. It involves the selection of a specific way to compete in the market. The selection of the business structure is the fourth step. It involves the selection of a specific way to organize the company.

Wang, writing that in 1990, "Significantly different" from the 1980s, the Chinese will "pass through the whole stage of a rapid growth of a country and the internationalization of everything in the 21st century." He stated that in the 21st century, the Chinese will "achieve a new growth."

10. *Chlorophyll a* and *Chlorophyll b* are the two main photosynthetic pigments in green plants. They are responsible for the absorption of light energy and the conversion of carbon dioxide and water into glucose and oxygen. The absorption spectra of these pigments show that they absorb light most efficiently in the blue and red regions of the visible spectrum.

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- (3) H_2O 和 H_2O_2 的混合溶液与 KMnO_4 溶液反应，生成 Mn^{2+} 和 O_2 ，写出该反应的离子方程式。

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- the student either
 - died during the school term, or
 - died within one year of discharge from school. (This would include students who died in a hospital or sanatorium within a year of being transferred from a residential school to the hospital or sanatorium.)
- for the purposes of this study, a residential school was defined as an institution recognized in the Indian Residential Schools Settlement Agreement, plus any residential school for Aboriginal students that was not included in the Settlement Agreement for the apparent reason that the school had ceased operation either in the nineteenth or early twentieth century.

The decision to include those students who died within a year of discharge rests on a common residential school practice of discharging students who were suffering from terminal illness to their homes or to institutions such as hospitals and sanatoria.

The Register of Confirmed Deaths of Unnamed Residential School Students

- the student was
 - a registered residential school student,
 - a student who was registered at a day school but was living in a student residence, or
 - an orphaned or destitute child living in a residential school.
- the student either
 - died during the school term, or
 - died within one year of discharge from school. (This would include students who died in a hospital or sanatorium within a year of being transferred from a residential school to the hospital or sanatorium.)

One of the common sources for the information about deaths included in this category is the reports made by principals who noted the number of students who had died in the previous year but who did not identify them by name.²⁰ It is recognized that the possibility exists that some of the deaths recorded in the Named Register might also be included in the Unnamed Register. The Commission has been cross-referencing entries in both registers to identify and eliminate such duplications wherever possible, and to identify the names of students who had originally been placed in the Unnamed Register.

The Register of Deaths that Require Further Investigation

Reports of deaths that the Commission has determined require further investigation to determine if they meet the criteria for inclusion in either of the other two sub-registers.

In creating the National Residential School Student Death Register, the Commission:

- conducted a review of documents held by the government and church signatories to the Indian Residential Schools Settlement Agreement that were provided to the TRC;
- included questions in the statement-gathering process that sought information from former students about deaths, including causes, runaways, and burials;
- worked with provincial agencies, such as the offices of chief coroners and medical examiners, offices of the registrars general of vital statistics, and provincial archives across the country, to identify records that may relate to deaths at residential schools; and
- conducted a review of provincial archaeological site inventories. (These are databases of reported archaeological sites. They included maps and aerial photos of the vicinity of the former schools.)

As one measure of true commitment to reconciliation, and out of respect for the thousands of children who died and their families, the Commission believes that work on this historic National Residential School Student Death Register must continue after the transfer of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission records to the National Centre for Truth and Reconciliation.

Limitations to the register

There are significant limitations in both the quality and quantity of the data the Commission has been able to compile on residential school deaths. There are problems with the level of detail in the data. As noted above, in many cases, school principals simply reported on the number of children who had died in a school, with few or no supporting details. There are also some reports that give a total of the number of students who had died since a specific school opened, but with no indication of the year in which each student died.²¹ Such reports usually did not give detailed information on the cause of death.

Changes over the years in the way the government reported the information it received from the schools have also placed limits on data collection. Prior to 1915, Indian Affairs' annual reports reproduced a detailed report from each principal that often contained information on the health conditions and the number of students who had died in the previous year. But, after 1915, Indian Affairs stopped publishing

principals' reports. Subsequent reports did not provide information on student deaths in any regularized format.

It was not until 1935 that Indian Affairs adopted a formal policy on how deaths at the schools were to be reported and investigated.²² Under this policy, the principal was to inform the Indian agent of the death of a student. The agent was to then convene and chair a three-person board of inquiry. The two other members of the board were to be the principal and the physician who attended the student. The board was to complete a form provided by Indian Affairs that requested information on the cause of death and the treatment provided to the child. Parents were to be notified of the inquiry and given the right to attend or have a representative attend the inquiry to make a statement. However, an inquiry was not to be delayed for more than seventy-two hours to accommodate parents, an extreme limitation, considering the relative isolation of many of the residential schools and the limited communications of the day.²³ The department was not prepared to pay parents' transportation costs to attend the inquiry.²⁴ The policy was not always adhered to, and, in some cases, the Indian agent simply filled out the form, based on information provided to him by the principal.²⁵

It is also doubtful that schools reported on the deaths of seriously ill children who had been sent home. This was a common practice for at least the first several decades that the schools were in operation. For example, in 1907, Dr. Peter Bryce, the chief medical officer for Indian Affairs, proposed that tubercular students be treated in small tent hospitals rather than "being sent home to die."²⁶

Due to the limitations in the records, it is probable that there are many student deaths that have not been recorded in the register because the record of the death has not yet been located. There are a number of instances where the only mention of a specific student death is in a church document, but there is no recorded indication of it in any Indian Affairs document that the Commission could locate.²⁷ There also exists the possibility that the death may not have been reported at all. As late as 1942, the principal of a residential school in Saskatchewan was unaware of any responsibility to report a death to provincial vital statistics officials.²⁸ Many residential schools housed significant numbers of Métis students during their history. In some cases, the federal government provided funding for these students; in other cases, it did not.²⁹ It is not clear if the schools reported on the deaths of unfunded Métis students at the schools.

As well, many records have simply been destroyed. According to a 1933 federal government policy, school returns could be destroyed after five years and reports of accidents could be destroyed after ten years. This led to the destruction of fifteen tons of paper. Between 1936 and 1944, 200,000 Indian Affairs files were destroyed.³⁰

Health records were also regularly destroyed. For example, in 1957, Indian and Northern Health Services was instructed to destroy, after a period of two years, "correspondence re routine arrangements re medical and dental treatments of Indians

and Eskimos, such as transportation, escort services, admission to hospital, advice on treatment, requests for treatment, etc.” Reports of doctors, dentists, and nurses were similarly assigned a two-year limited retention period.³¹

The Commission’s work has also been hampered by limited and late access to relevant documents from the government and churches, due to problems with document production. The federal government first provided access to substantial numbers of documents in the fall of 2011. These came to the Commission through an Aboriginal Affairs departmental online database that contained documents that had been compiled from Library and Archives Canada and collected from the churches. The database was originally established by Canada in the preparation of the government’s position in response to civil lawsuits launched by former residential school students. It was also used for settling alternate dispute-resolution claims brought by former school students. Although it contained many relevant documents, this database had not been designed to collect documents related to deaths in the schools. The digitization of these documents was often of poor quality: in some cases, documents were illegible. Additions were made to this database throughout 2012 until it contained almost one million documents. Additional documents were sent directly to the Commission as other departments began to search their records. However, relevant documents held by Library and Archives Canada were still withheld. In January 2013, the Ontario Superior Court determined that the federal government, although not obliged to turn over its originals, was required to compile all relevant documents in an organized manner for review by the Commission rather than simply providing access to Library and Archives Canada for Commission researchers.³² Since that date, there has been considerable improvement in the production of documents to the Commission. Nonetheless, the delay in clarifying Canada’s obligation means that the production of documents to the TRC is still continuing. It has not been possible to review all recently produced documents and to make the required adjustments to the National Residential School Student Death Register by the time of this report.

Operational policies and custodial care

As part of the Commission’s work, it reviewed operational and custodial care policies and practices at Canada’s residential schools. It is clear that the government and the churches failed to establish the necessary regulations to ensure that an acceptable level of care, based on the standards of the day, was provided to students. This failure occurred in the areas of health, nutrition, building conditions (including sanitation), discipline, truancy, student labour, abuse, and child welfare. Those regulations that were introduced were often poorly communicated and poorly enforced. Such failures contributed to unnecessarily high death rates among the students, and to poor

nutrition that would have contributed to poor physical and mental health conditions that affected many students for the rest of their lives.

Cemeteries and unmarked burials

The Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada undertook ongoing work to locate and identify cemeteries and gravesites in which residential school students might be buried. Archival documents and oral testimony were used to identify potential locations of gravesites. In consultation with Aboriginal communities, the Commission visited some of these sites to ascertain current condition and location, and to record any disturbance or neglect. Visits were made to cemeteries and twenty unmarked gravesites in the Northwest Territories, British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, Nova Scotia, and Ontario. In addition, the Commission documented the location and condition of school sites and cemeteries on maps, using satellite imagery. The area surrounding a visited school was systematically examined, using the available maps and satellite imagery. For the most part, the cemeteries that the Commission documented are abandoned, disused, and vulnerable to accidental disturbance. Although there have been creative and heartening community commemoration measures undertaken in some locations, there is an overall need for a national strategy for the documentation, maintenance, commemoration, and protection of residential school cemeteries. On the basis of the work undertaken to date, it is apparent that there are likely to be other unidentified residential gravesites across the country. A national program, carried out in close consultation with the concerned Aboriginal communities, is required to complete the task of identifying the many unmarked residential school cemeteries and gravesites across Canada.

Specific case inquiries

The Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada received inquiries from individuals seeking information about what had happened to family members who had been sent to residential school. To the degree that it was able, the Commission responded to a number of these requests.

At a 2012 intergovernmental conference, the Chief Coroners and Medical Examiners of Canada adopted a unanimous resolution to support the Missing Children Project, and agreed to assist the Commission where possible in identifying deaths at residential schools in their provincial records. To date, Alberta, British Columbia, New Brunswick, Newfoundland and Labrador, Northwest Territories, Nova

Scotia, Manitoba, and Prince Edward Island have responded. This process has provided both information about previously unknown deaths and more details about known deaths.

CHAPTER 1

Statistical analysis

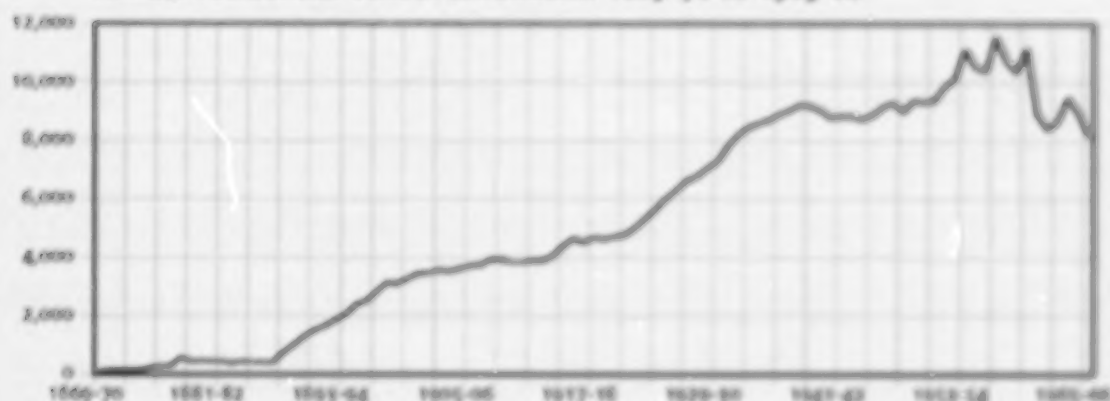
As noted above, the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada has created a Register of Confirmed Deaths of Named Residential School Students (the "Named Register") and a Register of Confirmed Deaths of Unnamed Students (the "Unnamed Register"). The first register contains reports on the deaths of students whose names the Commission has been able to identify. The second contains reports on the deaths of students whose names the Commission has not been able to identify. As recommended by the Working Group on Missing Children and Unmarked Burials, the TRC carried out a statistical analysis of the information in both these registers.¹ The analysis is based on information entered into the registers as of November 18, 2014. As previously indicated, it is probable that not all residential school deaths have been recorded in either register.

Annual enrolment

Student deaths must be placed in the context of student enrolment. Graph 1 shows total enrolment figures for Canada's residential schools and residences from the school year 1869-70 through to the school year 1965-66. It is based on information in the annual reports of the Indian Affairs and Northern Affairs departments and branches. After 1966, Indian Affairs stopped providing annual reports on the number of students living in residence. As can be seen from this graph, enrolment rose steadily from the mid-1880s, peaking in 1956-57.

Graph 1

Annual residential school enrolment: 1869-70 to 1965-66



Source: Indian Affairs and Northern Affairs annual reports. After the 1965-66 school year, Indian Affairs stopped reporting on annual residential school enrolment.

Total deaths

As of November 2016, the Commission had identified 1,600 students in its Named Register for the period from 1967 to 2000. When combined with the figures in the Unnamed Register, the total is 1,697 deaths. The majority of deaths took place prior to 1995. In the pre-1995 era, there were 1,136 deaths for which no name was provided. In the post-1995 period, there are forty-five death reports that do not provide the student's name.

Table 1. Total deaths identified in TBC Named and Unnamed registers.

	Named	Unnamed
1967-1994	1,308	1,408
1995-2000	547	49
1967-2000	1,855	1,457
Year of death unknown	0	36
Total	1,855	1,493

Source: Brounfeld, "Statistical Analysis of Deaths," 4.

Gender

In many cases, neither the gender nor the name of a deceased student was recorded. There were 747 deaths for which gender was not reported. Table 2 presents information on the death reports for which the gender of the student was reported. As shown, female students represented a slightly larger percentage of student deaths in both the Named and Combined categories.

Table 2. Residential school deaths by gender, 1967-2000.

	Named		Unnamed	
	Named	Named and Unnamed Combined	Named	Named and Unnamed Combined
1967-1994	737	870	149	148
1995-2000	320	337	29	37
1967-2000	1,057	1,207	178	1,85
Year of death unknown	0	16	0	0
Total	1,057	1,223	178	1,85

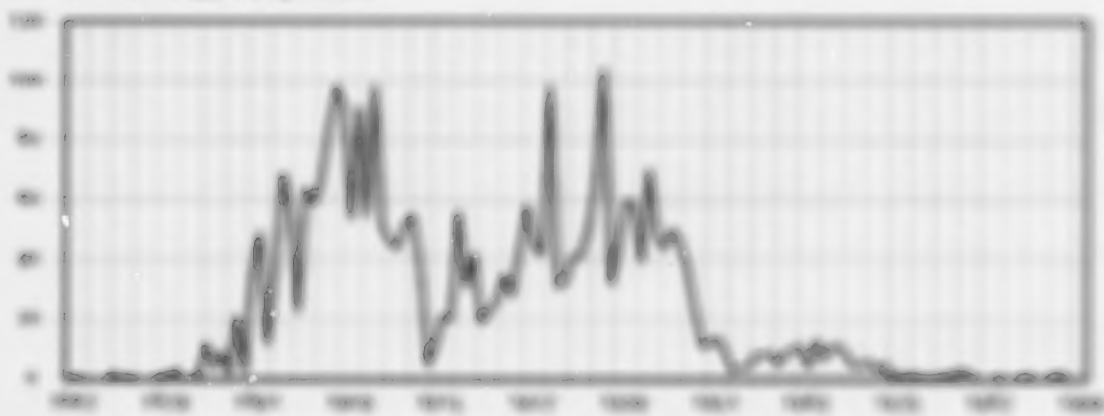
Source: Brounfeld, "Statistical Analysis of Deaths," 4.

Deaths per year

The number of student deaths per year (themed and unnamed combined) was during the early years of the combined system's operation. It declined in the second decade of the twentieth century, only to rise again. The number of deaths per year reached high and 1940. Graph 2 illustrates the pattern.

Graph 2

Annual residential school deaths (themed and unnamed regions combined), 1880-1940



Source: Statistical, "Statistical Digest of Deaths."

Disability rates

The disability rates were the same for 1,000 individuals, although the change in disability rates was greater in the number of months. However, the disability rate was increasing in the early months of recovery. The increase in the disability rate in the early months was not as large as the increase in the total number of months for the same period. There were some months when there were more months than there were not as many months per month of disability. However, the disability rate was not as high as the disability rate in the early months. The disability rate was not as high as the disability rate in the early months. The disability rate was not as high as the disability rate in the early months.

Graph 2
Combined annual disability rates (annual and combined average)
combined) per 1,000 individuals, 1960-1970

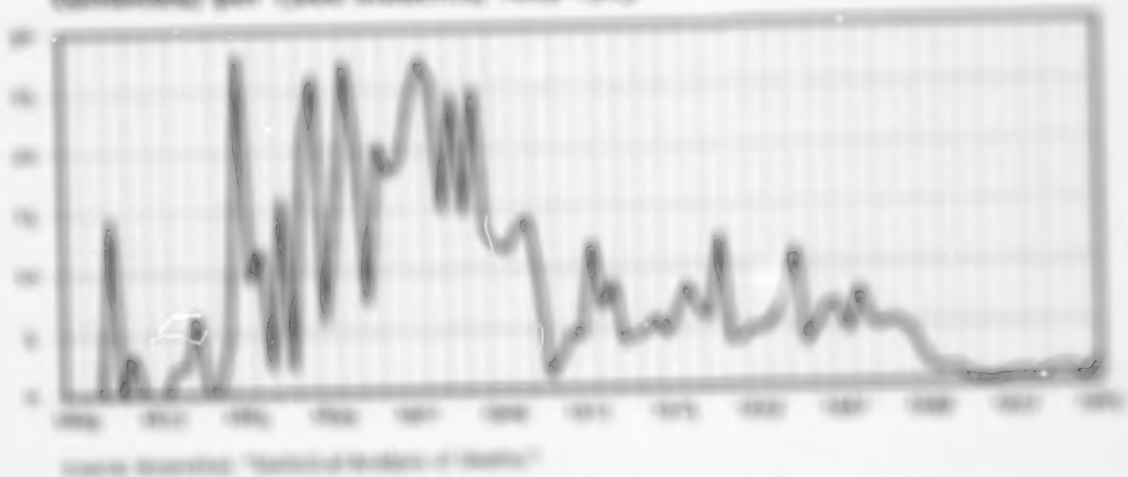
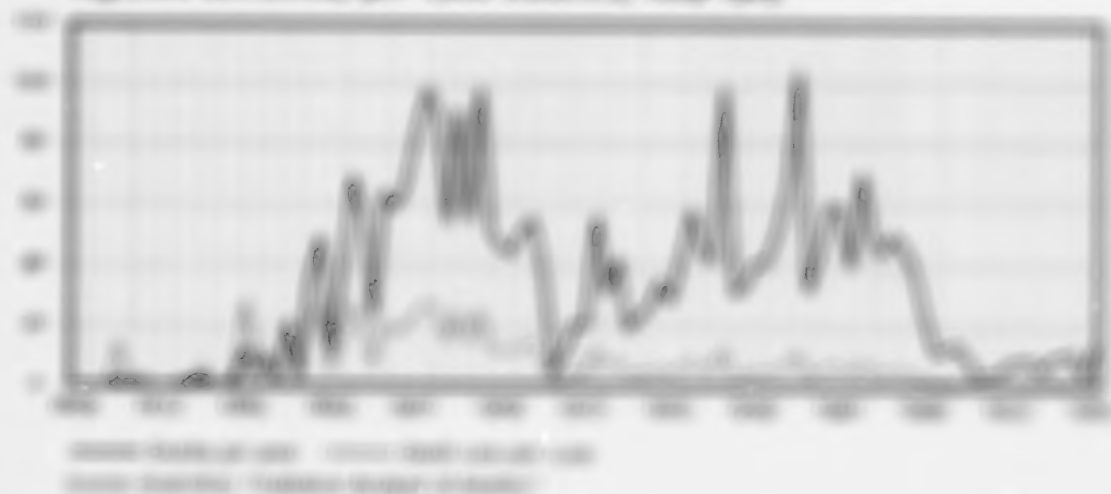


Figure 1 presents results for women's experience of sexual abuse and for men's experience of physical abuse.

Figure 1

Gendered experience of sexual abuse and physical abuse: Standard and frequency response statistics for each outcome, 1995-2005

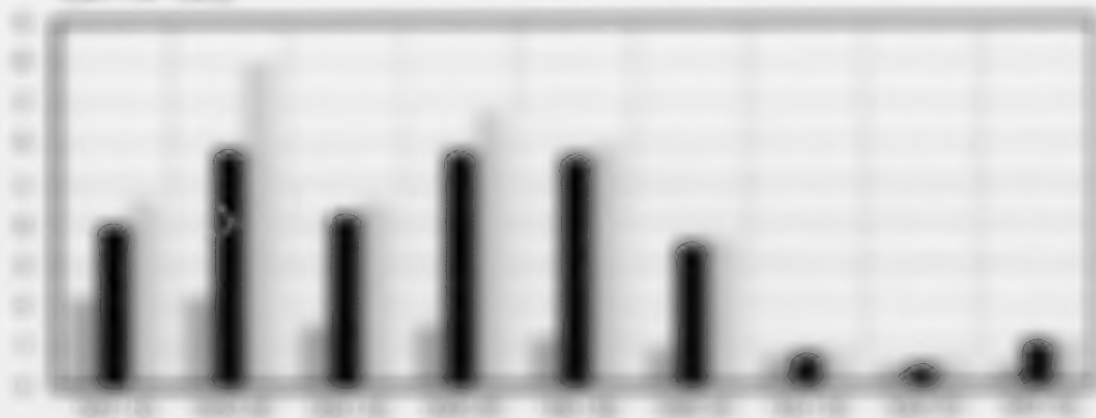


Comparative Data

When we compare the prevalence of sexual abuse and physical abuse among women and men, we find that the prevalence of sexual abuse is higher for women than for men. This is true for both the standard response and the frequency response. The prevalence of physical abuse is higher for men than for women. This is also true for both the standard response and the frequency response. The prevalence of sexual abuse is higher for women than for men in all years from 1995 to 2005. The prevalence of physical abuse is higher for men than for women in all years from 1995 to 2005. The prevalence of sexual abuse is higher for women than for men in all years from 1995 to 2005. The prevalence of physical abuse is higher for men than for women in all years from 1995 to 2005.

Figure 1

Number of publications in the field of management education research, 1980-2000, by country of origin. The number of publications is shown for each country, and the total number of publications is shown for each decade.



- USA
- UK
- Other

Source: Data from the Journal of Management Education, 1980-2000. The number of publications is shown for each country, and the total number of publications is shown for each decade.

Location of death

For 1,400 of the 1,500 deaths (93.3%) on the Niamod and Unammod registers combined for the period from 1867 to 2000, there is no known location of death. Table 4 reports on the location of the 1,100 deaths for which there is a known location of death.

Table 4. Location of residential school deaths, 1867-2000.

Location	Number reported	Number and percent registered combined
School	672	529
Hospital	400	497
Sanatorium	40	40
Home	200	218
Other than school	74	90
Total	1,400	1,300

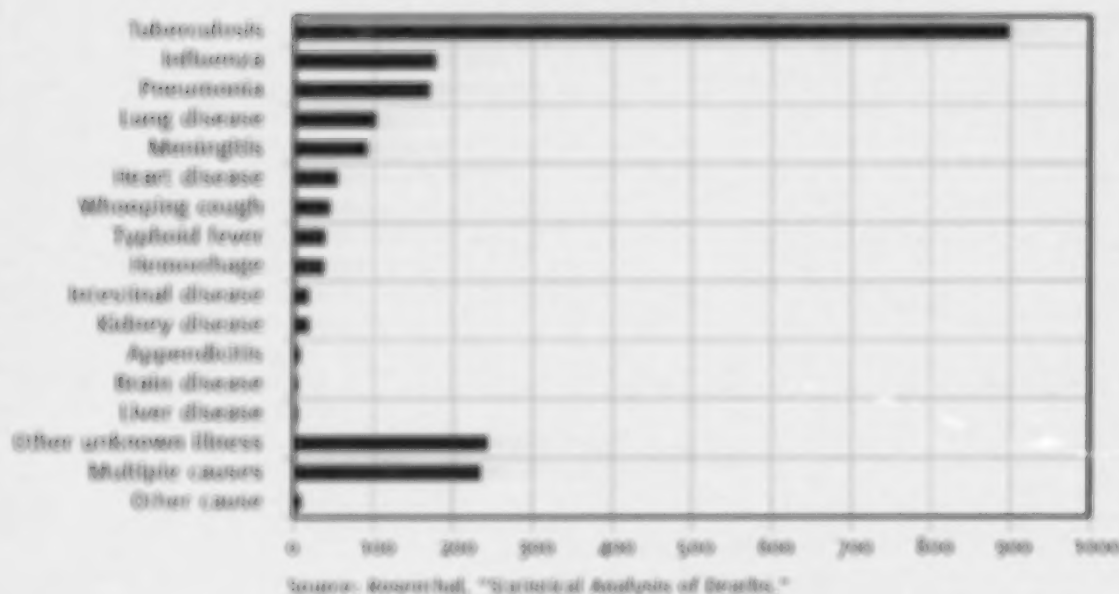
Source: Schwartz, "National Register of Deaths."

In 32 of the 412 Niamod cases reported in the Niamod and Unammod registers (combined) column in Table 4, the location of a death at school was identified as occurring in the school infirmary. Depending on the period in which the student death occurred, a "hospital" death could refer to a death in a church-run mission hospital, an Indian Affairs hospital, or a hospital operated for the general public. In the same fashion, depending on the period and the geographic location of the schools, students might have been sent to either Indian Affairs-operated sanatoria or sanatoria operated for the general public.

Cause of death

For approximately half the deaths that the TRC has identified, there is no known cause of death. In the case of the Named Register, the cause of death is unknown for 1,080 deaths (51% of the deaths). For the combined Named and Unnamed registers, the cause of death is unknown for 1,364 deaths (42.6% of the deaths). Graph 6 reports on the main causes of death due to illness.

Graph 6
Causes of residential school deaths by illness
(contributing and sole causes combined; Named and Unnamed registers combined), 1867-2000



Many diagnoses of the cause of death may not have been accurate. The determination of cause of death would often have been made by individuals without medical training. Many of the illnesses that were reported were not well understood in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, which would further contribute to the possibility of misdiagnosis. Inaccuracy in the reporting of the cause of death remains a problem in the medical system to this day.² It is possible, for example, possible that some of the cases of tuberculosis were misdiagnosed as being lung disease. It may also be the case that the meningitis diagnoses were tubercular in origin. Hemorrhage is not an illness but the result of an illness or injury. Severe hemorrhaging was not uncommon in cases of tuberculosis.³ These illnesses are also linked in other ways: tuberculosis, for example, can lead to pneumonia.

Tuberculosis was the dominant reported cause of death. It was identified as a contributing cause of death in 896 instances. In 737 of those instances, it was the sole cause of death. It was the reported cause of death in 48.7% of the cases for which there is a reported cause of death. As Graph 7 demonstrates, the tuberculosis death rate remained significant until the late 1940s. Its final decline coincides with the availability of effective drug treatment for tuberculosis.

Graph 7

**Residential school tuberculosis death rate per 1,000 students
(Named and Unnamed registers combined), 1869–1965**

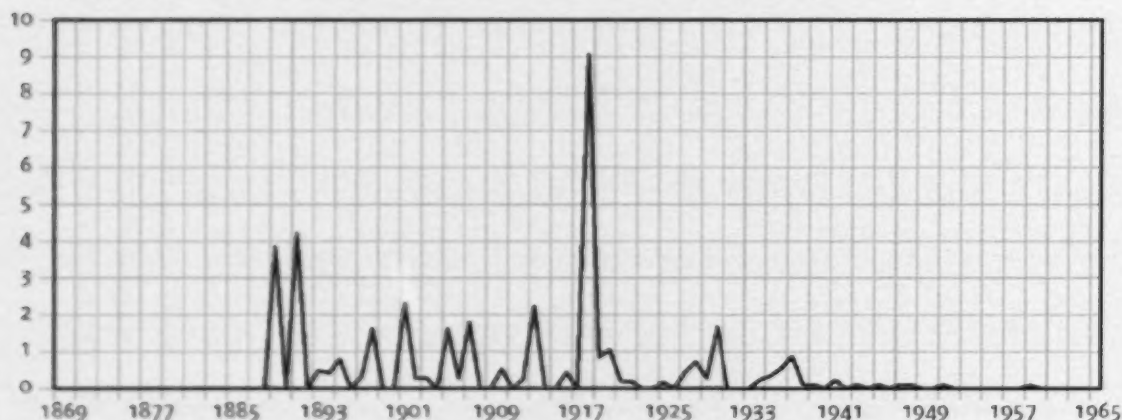


Source: Rosenthal, "Statistical Analysis of Deaths."

The other two major causes of death were influenza and pneumonia. As Graph 8 demonstrates, the influenza pandemic of 1918 caused a spike in the residential school influenza death rate.

Graph 8

**Residential school influenza death rate per 1,000 students
(Named and Unnamed registers combined), 1869–1965**

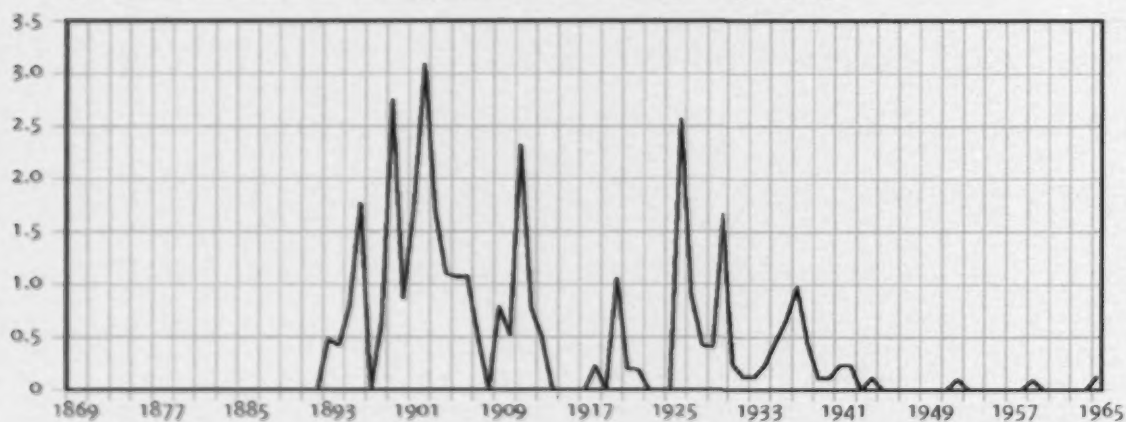


Source: Rosenthal, "Statistical Analysis of Deaths."

The pneumonia death rate, as illustrated in Graph 9, appears to have had a number of spikes before undergoing a significant decline in the 1940s.

Graph 9

**Residential school pneumonia death rate per 1,000 students
(Named and Unnamed registers combined), 1869–1965**

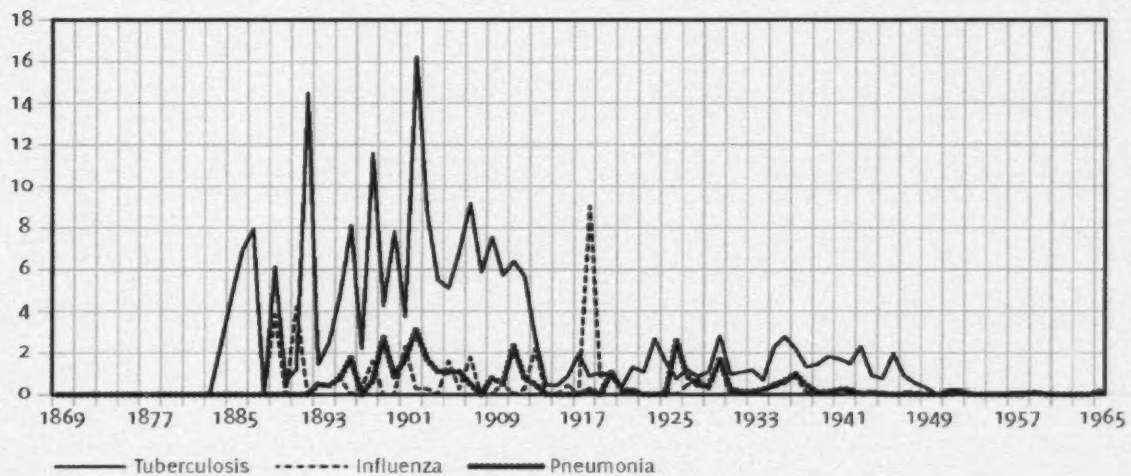


Source: Rosenthal, "Statistical Analysis of Deaths."

Graph 10 presents the tuberculosis, influenza, and pneumonia death rates (Named and Unnamed registers combined). It shows that the tuberculosis death rate was dramatically higher than the influenza and pneumonia death rates until the second decade of the twentieth century. It also shows that the influenza death rate surpassed the tuberculosis and pneumonia rates in 1918. In the years that followed, tuberculosis remained the main cause of death, but in the late 1920s and early 1930s, the pneumonia rates were also high. All death rates appear to have dropped dramatically at the end of the 1940s.

Graph 10

Residential school tuberculosis, influenza, and pneumonia death rates per 1,000 students (Named and Unnamed registers combined), 1869-1965



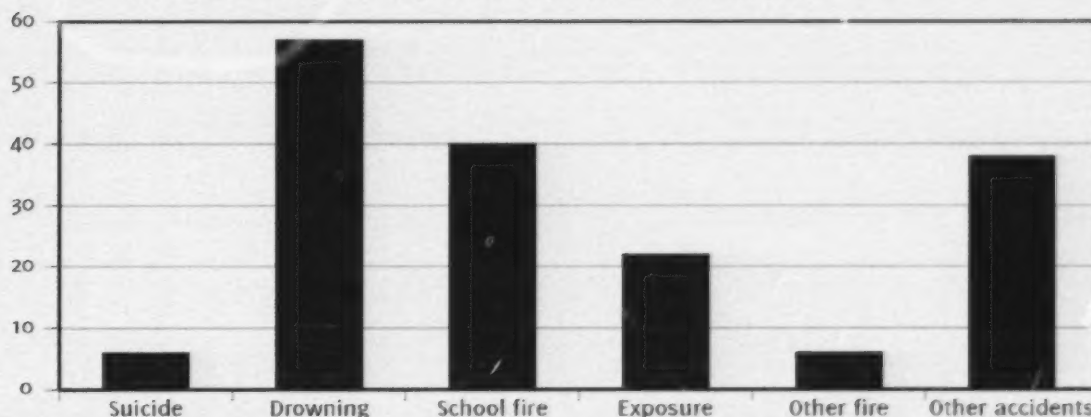
Source: Rosenthal, "Statistical Analysis of Deaths."

Suicide and accidental death

Students also died as the result of suicide and accidents. The statistical analysis identified six suicides (all from the Named Register). It also identified fifty-seven drownings (fifty-one from the Named Register), forty deaths in school fires (all on the Named Register), and twenty deaths due to exposure (nineteen of them on the Named Register). Thirty-eight students (thirty-five of them on the Named Register) died in a variety of other accidents, including vehicle accidents and falls. At least thirty-three students died while running away: they would have died from a variety of causes, the most common being exposure and drowning.⁴ Graph 11 reports on the numbers of suicides and deaths due to accidents.

Graph 11

**Causes of residential school deaths by suicide and accidental deaths
(Named and Unnamed registers combined), 1867–2000**



Source: Rosenthal, "Statistical Analysis of Deaths."

Despite the partial nature of the data, a number of significant facts emerge from the statistical analysis of the Named and Unnamed registers combined.

- The Commission has identified 3,200 deaths on the Named and Unnamed registers of confirmed deaths of residential school students.
- For just under one-third of these deaths (32%), the government and the schools did not record the name of the student who died.
- For just under one-quarter of these deaths (23%), the government and the schools did not record the gender of the student who died.
- For just under one-half of these deaths (49%), the government and the schools did not record the cause of death.

- Aboriginal children in residential schools died at a far higher rate than school-aged children in the general population.

There is a need for information sharing with the families of those who died at the schools. As the historical record indicates, families were not adequately informed of the health condition of their children. There is a need for the federal government to ensure that appropriate measures are undertaken to inform families of the fate of their children and to ensure that the children are commemorated in a way that is acceptable to their families. (The numbers for the Calls to Action are the ones used in *Honouring the Truth, Reconciling for the Future: Summary of the Final Report of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada*.)

Call to Action:

- 71) We call upon all chief coroners and provincial vital statistics agencies that have not provided to the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada their records on the deaths of Aboriginal children in the care of residential school authorities to make these documents available to the National Centre for Truth and Reconciliation.

Throughout the history of Canada's residential school system, there was no organized effort to record the number of students who died in residence each year across the entire system. The National Residential School Student Death Register established by the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada represents the first national effort to record the names of the students who died at school. The register is far from complete: there are many relevant documents that have yet to be reviewed. The completion and maintenance of this register will require ongoing financial support.

Call to Action:

- 72) We call upon the federal government to allocate sufficient resources to the National Centre for Truth and Reconciliation to allow it to develop and maintain the National Residential School Student Death Register established by the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada.

Discussion of the death rates

The five highest annual national residential school death rates that the TRC statistical analysis identified were 28 per 1,000 in 1885, 27.4 per 1,000 in 1902, 26.2 per 1,000 in 1892, 25.8 per 1,000 in 1903, and 24.9 per 1,000 in 1907. If these rates were expressed

as percentages, they would be 2.80%, 2.74%, 2.62%, 2.56%, and 2.68%, respectively. These, the Commission recognizes, are considerably lower than have been reported elsewhere.⁵ This is due to a number of factors, the most significant being the overall limitations in the data, which lead to undercounting. As more documents are reviewed, it is likely that the death rates based on the data in the National Residential School Student Death Register will increase. They are not, however, likely to increase to the point where they match the death rates of between 42% and 47% that are reported in some publications.⁶

Before making comment on this issue, it is important to note that the numbers and percentages of students and former residential school students reported to have died in the schools were scandalously high. None of this discussion is intended to minimize that fact that a health crisis existed in the general Aboriginal population and in residential schools, and that the federal government and the schools failed to adequately address the crisis. This discussion is intended to clarify the statistical record.

A significant portion of the disparity arises from the ways in which the term *death rate* has been used in some sources. A "death rate" (often called a "mortality rate") deals with a defined population over a defined period of time. There can be annual death rates, monthly death rates, and so forth. Rates are usually reported as so many deaths per 1,000 for a specific period.⁷ Unfortunately, the term *death rate* has also been applied to reports of the percentage of students who had died since a school (or group of schools) had opened. The matter is further confused by the fact that these reports do not always distinguish between the deaths of students and the deaths of former students.

For example, in 1891, the Qu'Appelle school reported that since opening in 1884, it had discharged 174 students, 71 of whom had died (40.8%).⁸ A 1901 study of the industrial schools concluded that of the 2,752 students who had been enrolled since 1883 (a period of eighteen years), 506 (18.4%) had died, while another 138 were reported to be in poor health.⁹ The percentages that emerge from these reports are evidence of the existence of high death rates, but they are not, in themselves, death rates. They record information on different populations (in one case, discharged students; in the other, both current and discharged students) and different periods of time (in one case, seven years; in the other, eighteen years). For these reasons, these percentages cannot be directly compared with other death rates—particularly those that arise in other contexts such as the Nazi work camps of the 1930s and 1940s.

Dr. Peter Bryce's 1907 report on boarding schools in western Canada is an oft-cited document in any discussion of residential school death rates. Bryce reported that "of 1,537 pupils returned from 15 schools which have been in operation on an average of fourteen years, 7 per cent are sick or in poor health, and 24 per cent are reported dead."¹⁰ Here again, the 24% figure is not a death rate but a proportion of the total enrolment who had died over an eighteen-year period. The annual average

death rates for these schools for this period can be calculated by dividing the number of deaths by the sum of the enrollments for each year. According to the Indian Affairs annual reports, the total of each year's enrollment for all these schools was 7,245. Bryce never gave a precise figure for the number of deaths. However, 24% of 1,537 is 368.8. Based on these figures, the annual average death rate for the schools was 36.8 per 1,000 (or 5.1%).²⁷ This figure, like most calculations based on the school data, should be treated cautiously. The enrollment figures, for example, may not be accurate. Nor can one have certainty that all relevant deaths were reported to Bryce. Finally, it is not clear from Bryce's report if the 24% figure included only those who died while students or if it included those who died after leaving the school.

Other than the passage quoted above, Bryce made only one other statement in his report in relation to the 24%, writing that "of a total 1,537 pupils reported on nearly 25 per cent are dead." Bryce returned to the topic in his 1922 booklet *The Story of a National Crime*, in which he wrote that, according to his 1907 report, "24 per cent of all the pupils, which had been in the schools were known to be dead, while of one school on the Flat Hill reserve, which gave a complete return to date, 75 per cent were dead at the end of the 16 years since the school opened."²⁸ In all three instances, he simply states that the students were dead and does not state whether they died in school or after discharge.

In a table titled "Present Condition of All Pupils," Bryce reported that 1,132 students were alive (830 in good health and 302 sick.) One possible interpretation of this table is that although 24% of the students who had been enrolled in all the schools over the eighteen-year period being reported on were dead, 76% were alive.²⁹ (The "Present Condition of All Pupils" table could not be reporting solely on the number of students enrolled in the school in 1907, since total enrollment in these schools, according to the Indian Affairs annual report for 1907, was only 536.)³⁰ It might well be the case that the entirety of the 24% of the enrollment who died did so while they were students. That, however, would mean that none of the students died after they were discharged, since 73.8% of the 1,034 individuals reported on under the heading "Present Condition of All Pupils" were alive in 1907.

The soundest interpretation of the 24% is that it represents what Bryce, on three separate occasions, stated it represents: the percentage of the total enrollment of students who had died between the opening of the schools and spring 1907. That they all died in school is unlikely, but the number of those who died in the school and the number after discharge cannot be determined from Bryce's report. Bryce's report is evidence of a high death rate, but it is not an annual death rate (or any other sort of death rate). Neither does the report provide sufficient information to determine annual death rates in the schools or to make predictions as to how many of the students then enrolled would die in the coming years.

Table 1. The effect of the 1970-71 wage freeze on the distribution of earnings			
Percentage of total earnings			
1970	1971	1972	1973
10	10.5	10.5	10.5
20	20.5	20.5	20.5

Principal reports from wage-freeze schools in southern Ontario are available, making it difficult for the high wage schools in the lower half of the range. The 1970-71 school year finished in 1971 and the highest wage freeze schools (including schools) was finished in 1972. These schools have been reported as having high rates of 10% from 1970-71 to the early 1970s to 1972. By Table 2 above, the distribution of earnings, 10% of the schools were had worked in 1970-71 were high and 10% of those worked in the highest wage schools in the freeze schools were high. The percentage of those who had worked in schools however was 10.00% to 10.00% and a total of 10% in the freeze schools (the category of 'high schools in schools' also includes those who were not frozen and did not get in the end of wages of the school year of the high schools). The average annual high rate for the 1970-71 school year (the period) was 10.00% (the schools) while average annual high rate for the highest schools in the freeze schools was 10.00% (the schools) to 10.00%.

The results of this study suggest that the experience of sexual violence is a complex phenomenon that involves a range of factors, including individual, social, and cultural factors. The findings of this study suggest that the experience of sexual violence is not a one-time event, but rather a process that can have long-term effects on the victim's life. The results of this study suggest that the experience of sexual violence is a complex phenomenon that involves a range of factors, including individual, social, and cultural factors. The findings of this study suggest that the experience of sexual violence is not a one-time event, but rather a process that can have long-term effects on the victim's life.

1. The first part of the paper discusses the importance of understanding the social context of the research. It emphasizes that researchers must be aware of the cultural, historical, and political factors that may influence the results of their studies. This is particularly true in the case of qualitative research, where the researcher's own beliefs and values can play a significant role in the interpretation of the data.

2. The second part of the paper focuses on the methodological challenges of conducting research in a complex and dynamic social environment. It highlights the need for flexibility and adaptability in the research design, as well as the importance of building trust and rapport with the participants. The author also discusses the ethical considerations that arise from conducting research in such contexts, and the need for transparency and accountability in the research process.

3. The third part of the paper presents a case study of a research project conducted in a community in South Africa. The project aimed to explore the experiences of women who had been affected by the apartheid system. The author describes the challenges faced by the researcher in gaining access to the community and building trust with the participants. She also discusses the methods used to collect and analyze the data, and the findings of the study.

4. The final part of the paper discusses the implications of the research for social policy and practice. It argues that the findings of the study have important implications for understanding the experiences of women in South Africa, and for developing policies and programs that address their needs. The author also discusses the role of researchers in social change, and the importance of using research to inform policy and practice.

CHAPTER 2

Operational policies and custodial care

The Working Group on Missing Children and Unmarked Burials recommended that the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada prepare a report on residential school "Operational Policies and Custodial Care." The working group's Research Recommendations stated:

- This study will seek to understand the regulatory regime in which the schools operated with respect to the care of children including the provision of health services, policies on discipline, runaways, deaths and burials, as well as commentary on Departmental administration of regulations and school compliance with those regulations.
- This study will also examine the degree to which school administrators, church and departmental officials and the government in general were aware of the phenomenon of school deaths, disease and missing children.

Canada's residential schools and residences for Aboriginal children operated for approximately 130 years. For most of that period, they were funded by Indian Affairs and operated under contract by a number of leading religious denominations. After 1969, the schools and residences in southern Canada were split into separate institutions, with the federal government taking more responsibility for the operation of both institutions. During this period, a number of First Nations authorities also assumed responsibility for the operation of some residences and schools. For certain periods of time, the schools in the Northwest Territories were funded by the Northern Affairs Department rather than Indian Affairs. After 1989, the governments of the Northwest Territories and the Yukon were responsible for the operation of the residences and schools in their respective jurisdictions. Given both the time period involved and the number of different governments and government agencies involved, the regulatory regime that governed such issues as health, discipline, and runaways was subject to variation.

It should also be noted that the issues under examination—health policy, education policy, and child welfare—were, in the Canadian context, largely provincial

responsibilities. For much of the history of the residential school system, provincial policies and regulations relating to these areas were not applied to residential schools. The federal government did not have its own general policies on institutional health care, education, or child welfare. As a result, it was left to Indian Affairs (or, in the North, Northern Affairs and, later, the territorial governments) to develop such policies as were needed. For most of the history of the residential school system, it is fair to say that formal regulation was minimal, reactive, and ineffective. It is also the case that the system failed to meet the minimum expectations of the day for the provision of custodial care. It must also be said that despite certain problems with reporting, senior government and church officials were well aware of the schools' ongoing failure to provide adequate levels of custodial care.

Part 1: Regulatory tools

The government had a number of tools available with which to regulate residential schools. These included legislation, regulation, Orders-in-Council, contracts, letters of instructions, federal codes and guidelines, circulars, and policy directives.

Legislation, regulation, and Orders-in-Council all had the power of law. From 1911 onwards, contracts, based on a template developed in 1910, were signed by the government with church-based organizations for the operation of individual schools. Initially, the contracts applied only to church-run boarding schools, but in the 1920s, they came to be applied to all residential schools in Canada. They did not, however, apply to the system of hostels and day schools that was established in the Northwest Territories and the Yukon in the 1950s. Circulars and policy directives would be issued by Indian Affairs to school principals and Indian agents on a system-wide basis. Letters of instruction were generally issued to specific principals or Indian agents.

Legislation and regulation

The Canadian government never developed anything approaching the education acts and regulations by which provincial governments administered public schools. The key piece of legislation used in regulating the residential school system was the *Indian Act*. First adopted in 1876, this was a multi-purpose piece of legislation that both defined and strictly limited First Nations life in Canada. The Act contained no education-related provisions until 1884. The education provisions were, in general, four to five pages long and dealt mainly with issues related to attendance and truancy.

1884 *Indian Act* amendments

In 1884, the *Indian Act* was amended to give First Nations band councils the right to frame rules and regulations for "the attendance at school of children between the ages of six and fifteen years."¹ This was the first reference to school attendance in the *Indian Act*. The 1884 Act made no mention of, or provision for, residential schools.

1894 *Indian Act* amendments

In 1894, the *Indian Act* was amended to authorize the government to make regulations "to secure the compulsory attendance of children at school." These regulations could be applied to "the Indians of any province or of any named band." The amendments also gave the government authority to establish "an industrial school or a boarding school for Indians" and to commit to these schools "children of Indian blood under the age of sixteen years." Once committed, they could be kept there until they reached the age of eighteen.²

1894 *Regulations Relating to the Education of Indian Children*

Under the authority of the 1894 *Indian Act* amendments, the government adopted its first school-related regulations. According to the *Regulations Relating to the Education of Indian Children*, "All Indian children between the ages of seven and sixteen shall attend a day school on the reserve on which they reside for the full term during which the school is open each year." Exemptions were allowed if the child was being instructed elsewhere, if the child was sick or otherwise unable to attend school, if there was no school within two miles (3.2 kilometres) for children under ten years old or within three miles (4.8 kilometres) for children over ten, if the child had been excused from attending school to assist in farm or domestic work at home, or if the child had already passed a high school entrance examination.

Indian agents were authorized to appoint truant officers, who would have "police powers." The truant officers were to investigate cases of non-attendance, and could lay complaints against non-compliant parents with justices of the peace or Indian agents. Refusal to comply with the order of a truant officer was punishable by a fine of up to \$2, ten days in jail, or both.³

If an Indian agent or justice of the peace thought that any "Indian child between six and sixteen years of age is not being properly cared for or educated, and that the parent, guardian or other person having charge or control of such child, is unfit or unwilling to provide for the child's education," he could issue an order to place the child "in an industrial or boarding school, in which there may be a vacancy for such child." In

Manitoba and the Northwest Territories, such an order could be issued without the need to give any notice to the "parent, guardian or other person having charge or control of such child." In the rest of the country, prior notice was required and, if the parents requested, an inquiry could be held prior to the child's committal. Under these orders, a child could be committed to residential school until the age of eighteen. This was the first government provision authorizing it to compel attendance at residential schools: it was limited only to those students who had been placed in the schools for what would now be described as "child-welfare reasons." It did not apply to students who had been voluntarily placed in the schools by their parents.

If a child placed in school under these regulations left a residential school without permission, or failed to return at a promised time, school officials could obtain a warrant from an Indian agent or a justice of the peace authorizing them (or a police officer, truant officer, or employee of the school or Indian Affairs) to "search for and take such child back to the school in which it had been previously placed." With a warrant, one could enter—by force, if need be—any house, building, or place named in the warrant and remove the child. Even without a warrant, Indian Affairs employees and constables had the authority to arrest a student in the act of escaping from a residential school and return the child to the school.

The regulations specifically identified twenty-three industrial residential schools and eighteen boarding schools. (The decision to list the specific schools created enforcement problems in later years as some schools closed, and new ones were not specifically listed in the regulations.)⁴

1895 regulation amendments

In 1895, the regulations were amended to make them more restrictive. Where they had previously authorized the search for, and return of, any student who had been placed in the school (that is, children who, Indian Affairs had concluded, were not "being properly cared for or educated"), they now allowed for the return to the school of *all* truant students, including those whose parents had voluntarily placed them in the school.⁵ Indian agents were instructed to use the authority of these new regulations to ensure that the schools were full. Orphans were to be recruited to fill vacancies and truants were to be returned to the schools.⁶ Parents were to be told that if they did not voluntarily enrol their children, they would be compelled to do so.⁷ First Nations leaders who opposed residential schooling could find themselves removed from office by the federal government.⁸

1908 *Regulations Relating to the Education of Indian Children*

A new set of regulations was adopted in 1908. The 1908 *Regulations Relating to the Education of Indian Children* stated, "All Indian children between the ages of six and fifteen shall attend a day school on the reserve on which they reside." Truant officers were no longer granted "police powers" (it had been determined that the *Indian Act* did not provide the authority to grant such powers). Rather than listing the schools, the regulations stated that all boarding schools and industrial schools receiving per capita grants for the education of "Indian children" were designated as industrial and boarding schools for the purposes of the regulation. The rest of the provisions remained essentially unchanged.⁹

1920 *Indian Act* amendment

The education provisions of the *Indian Act* were completely rewritten in 1920. The amendments gave the federal government the authority to compel any First Nations student to attend either a day school or a residential school until the child turned fifteen. It authorized the appointment of truant officers. These officers were granted the powers of a "peace officer," and could

enter any place where he has reason to believe there are Indian children between the ages of seven and fifteen years, and when requested by the Indian agent, a school teacher or the chief of a band shall examine into any case of truancy, shall warn the truants, their parents or guardians or the person with whom any Indian child resides, of the consequences of truancy.

Parents, guardians, or persons with whom a child was residing were subject to arrest, prosecution, fines, and jail if they did not return truant children to school. They could be tried by a justice of the peace or an Indian agent. Truant children could be arrested without warrant and returned to school.¹⁰

Since the education provisions in the 1920 *Indian Act* amendments were much more detailed, no regulations were adopted under it and previous regulations were no longer in force.¹¹

1930 *Indian Act* amendment

In 1930, the *Indian Act* was amended to increase the discharge age from fifteen to sixteen. The minister of Indian Affairs was allowed to order that a child be kept in school until he or she turned eighteen if it was thought "it would be detrimental to any particular Indian child to have it discharged from school on attaining the full age of sixteen years."¹²

1933 *Indian Act* amendment

The *Indian Act* was amended in 1933 to appoint all Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) officers as truant officers.¹³ This appears to have been a formalization of a 1927 order that had appointed all RCMP officers as truant officers.¹⁴

1951 *Indian Act*

The 1951 *Indian Act*, the first major revision to the Act in decades, contained ten sections dealing with education. One section opened the door to shifting the responsibility for First Nations education to provincial governments; four sections dealt with attendance, truancy, and expulsion; three sections affirmed the rights of the Roman Catholic and Protestant churches (making no mention of Aboriginal spirituality); one section outlined the minister's authority; and the final section was simply a set of definitions. Residential schools remained one of the classes of schools that First Nations children could be compelled to attend.¹⁵ One new provision stated that a student who was suspended or expelled from school or who did not attend school regularly "shall be deemed to be a juvenile delinquent within the meaning of the *Juvenile Delinquents Act, 1929*."¹⁶

1953 *Regulations With Respect to Teaching, Education, Inspection, and Discipline for Indian Residential Schools*

A new set of regulations relating to residential schools was adopted after the 1951 revision of the *Indian Act*. The four-page document covered a broader range of topics than the previous regulations. It stipulated that residential schools would follow "the curriculum of the province or territory within the boundaries of which an Indian school is situated" and use the textbooks prescribed for that curriculum. By requiring that "every pupil in a residential school shall receive classroom instruction for the number of hours weekly as required by the curriculum," it did away with the half-day system by which students had spent half a day in class and half a day at what was supposed to be vocational training, but was often closer to unpaid manual labour and chores associated with running the school facility. It did not, however, place any limits on the time that students might still be required to spend at chores outside the school day. Students were not to be enrolled, discharged, or suspended without the approval of Indian Affairs. The only condition under which students could be removed from the school without Indian Affairs' approval was when the school principal was acting on medical advice. Regulation 10.4 required, "The principal shall take prompt action

to effect the return to school of any truant pupil, and shall report promptly to the Superintendent, Indian Agency, every case of truancy."

Grants were to be provided to pay for the initial journey to a school and the return journey upon discharge. Other grants for transportation required prior approval from Indian Affairs.

Item 13 of the regulations required the principal of every school to maintain standards acceptable to Indian Affairs in relation to:

- (a) the adequacy in numbers and qualifications of the school staff;
- (b) the number of pupils served by the school;
- (c) diet and all phases of food preparation and service;
- (d) clothing and bedding;
- (e) dormitory accommodation;
- (f) heating and ventilation;
- (g) cleanliness, sanitation, water supply and laundry services;
- (h) lighting;
- (i) interior decoration;
- (j) safety precautions;
- (k) classroom instruction;
- (l) recreational activities;
- (m) counselling and guidance;
- (n) home and school relationships;
- (o) the maintenance of records;
- (p) the accounting for funds, stock and equipment.

The standards were not defined. The principal was also responsible for:

- (a) the maintenance and operation of the school buildings, grounds and equipment;
- (b) the assignment of duties to the staff and the supervision of the performance thereof;
- (c) the preparation and dissemination of rules relating to the functioning of the school;
- (d) the provision and supervision of measures to ensure the health, safety, welfare and educational progress of the pupils;
- (e) the submission of reports and returns required by the Superintendent;
- (f) (the prompt submission of reports to the Regional Director of Family Allowances concerning the admission and discharge of pupils to and from the school;
- (g) the prompt and accurate entry of receipts and expenditures in the Cash Receipt and Expenditure Book; and
- (h) the practice of fire drill not less than once a month.

The position of the principal in relation to the students was also defined. He or she was to "assume the responsibilities of parent or guardian with respect to the welfare and discipline of the pupils under his charge."

The principal was obliged to give Indian Affairs notice of intent to absent himself from his duties. All the staff members were responsible to the principal. Pupils were required to "conform to the rules for the conduct and behaviour of pupils while on or near the school premises or on any premises where any activity of the school is taking place."¹⁷

Overall inadequacy of regulatory regime

It was recognized by those who worked within the system that the level of regulation was inadequate. In 1887, Indian Affairs education official Martin Benson wrote, "No regulations have been adopted or issued by the Department applicable to all its schools, as had been done by the Provincial Governments."¹⁸ The situation did not improve over time. The education section of the 1951 *Indian Act* and the residential school regulations adopted in 1953 were each only four pages in length.¹⁹ For comparison, the *Manitoba Public Schools Act* of 1954 was ninety-one pages in length.²⁰ In addition to the Act, the Manitoba government had adopted nineteen education-related regulations.²¹

It is also apparent that many senior officials within the residential school system had little knowledge of the existing rules and regulations. The general secretary of the Missionary Society of the Church of England in Canada, which operated the Anglican residential schools in Canada, asked Deputy Minister Duncan Campbell Scott in 1920, "Is corporal punishment for disciplinary purposes recognized, or permitted in the Indian Boarding schools?" He noted that whether or not it was permitted, he imagined that it was applied in every boarding school in the country.²² In 1922, an Indian agent in Hagersville, Ontario, wrote to headquarters, inquiring if there had been any changes in the regulations regarding education since the adoption of a set of education regulations in 1908. His question suggests he was completely unaware of major changes to the *Indian Act* regarding education that had supplanted previous regulations in 1920.²³

In 1926, I. K. Irwin, the newly appointed principal of the Gordon's Reserve school in Saskatchewan, discovered upon taking office that he could not find any "laid down regulations as to the duties and powers of a Principal of an Indian Boarding School." He wrote to the Indian Affairs department, asking for a copy of such regulations, since he wanted to know "exactly what I am to do and what powers I have."²⁴ Departmental secretary J. D. McLean informed him that "there are no printed regulations concerning the duties and powers of the principal of an Indian residential school." Irwin was

said that he was "responsible to the Church and the Department for every phase of the activity" at the school. If he had any specific questions, he should refer them to Indian Affairs.⁷⁷ In 1905, when the principal of an Alberta boarding school requested a copy of the regulations concerning the education of Indian children, she was informed by the department's senior education officer that "the only printed matter in this connection is the Indian Act, Section 9 to 11A inclusive."⁷⁸

Orders in Council and contracts

The initial Canadian residential schools were church initiatives, with the federal government's providing small per capita grants. These schools were generally referred to as "boarding schools." Until the beginning of the 1880s, the boarding schools were funded at a rate of between \$10 and \$60 per student.⁷⁹ Boarding school rates increased slightly in 1881, and ranged from \$10 to \$72 per capita.⁸⁰ There is no record to suggest that the government placed any significant regulatory requirements on these schools.

Starting in 1883, the federal government began establishing a second type of residential school. These larger institutions were known as "industrial schools" and were intended as part of a broader policy of Canada's colonization of northwestern North America. Their construction and operation were approved by Parliament, and, although each principal was a church appointee, the government covered all costs associated with the operation of these schools. The federal government also provided the principals (or the local bishop) with directions as to how the school was to be operated.

The 1892 Order in Council

In 1892, the federal government issued an Order in Council governing the funding operation of its industrial schools. The order converted the Qu'Appelle, Battleford, and High River schools to a per capita funding model. The conversion was in effect a significant reduction: the funding per student declined from \$124.07 to \$115.00 (Qu'Appelle), \$175.41 to \$145.00 (Battleford), and \$185.55 to \$130.00 (High River). Under the Order in Council, which applied to all industrial schools but not to the boarding schools, responsibility was to be a shared responsibility: the government was to supply the material, the churches, the labour. The government was to supply the books, maps, and globes. From the annual per capita grant, the churches were to pay for maintenance, salaries, and expenses. The government would also authorize the school's papilage (the number of students for whom the government was prepared to pay a grant).

The schools were obliged to follow "the rules of the Indian Department as laid down from time to time and to keep the schools at a certain standard of instruction, sanitary and domestic condition, and that the Inspectors and Officers of the Indian Department may at any time inspect and report upon the institutions." The chief was to be admitted to the school without the Department's approval. The system was put into effect in July 1875.⁷

The Order in Council is the first clear statement of government authority to regulate school conditions. It does not set out the standards. It simply asserts the government's right to set and enforce standards. The government did not develop or enforce the standards referred to in the Order in Council.

The 1875 contract

During the first decade of the nineteenth century, there was a concerted campaign organized by the leaders of Protestant missionary organizations to reduce Canada's indigenous culture, reduce the number of residential schools. They were motivated by both the growing cost of the schools to the missionary organizations and the competing expense of poor health conditions in the schools. The campaign called for a nation of workers, including opposition from Catholic officials and Protestant missionaries in western Canada.⁸ It did lead to the negotiation of a boarding school funding agreement between the government and the churches in November 1875. The contract provided both capital and recurrent to the per capita grant and incentives to improve the quality of the boarding schools.⁹

In that time, per capita rates for boarding schools had not increased since 1855; they were \$10 for schools in eastern Canada and \$15 for schools in the West and North. The new agreement divided the country into Eastern, Western, and Northern divisions. There was a single per capita rate for the Northern Division schools of \$15. In the Eastern Division, the rates could vary between \$10 and \$15, and in the West, they could vary between \$10 and \$15. On a percentage basis, the increases were substantial, ranging between 10% and 15%. Although they represented an increase, the new boarding school per capita rates were still below the per capita rates granted to industrial schools under the 1855 Order in Council. The average per capita grant under this system was \$11.

The schools themselves were to be divided into three classes: A, B, and C. Class A schools were class B or class C schools in good condition and would receive the most money from the federal government. They had to have substantial buildings in a good state of repair, with a full basement, a stone or concrete foundation, a plentiful supply of good water throughout the building, a proper system of ventilation, hospital accommodation for students with infectious diseases or tuberculosis, medical consultation, adequate

Mathematics: Algebra 1

Chapter 1: Foundations

This chapter introduces the fundamental concepts and skills needed for algebra. It covers the real number system, operations with real numbers, and the properties of exponents. The chapter also includes a review of the order of operations and the use of variables in algebraic expressions.

Real Number System

The real number system consists of all numbers that can be represented on a number line. It includes the rational numbers (fractions and decimals) and the irrational numbers (numbers that cannot be expressed as a fraction). The real number system is closed under addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division (except for division by zero).

Operations with Real Numbers

This section covers the basic operations with real numbers: addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. It includes rules for adding and subtracting positive and negative numbers, and for multiplying and dividing fractions and decimals.

Properties of Exponents

This section covers the properties of exponents, which are used to simplify expressions involving powers. The properties include the product rule, the quotient rule, the power rule, and the zero power rule.

Order of Operations

The order of operations is a set of rules that dictate the sequence in which operations should be performed in an expression. The rules are: parentheses, exponents, multiplication and division (from left to right), and addition and subtraction (from left to right).

Variables and Algebraic Expressions

This section introduces variables, which are symbols used to represent numbers. It also covers the use of variables in algebraic expressions, which are combinations of numbers, variables, and operations.

Chapter 2: Linear Equations and Functions

This chapter covers linear equations and functions. It includes the slope-intercept form of a line, the point-slope form, and the standard form. It also covers the graphing of linear equations and functions, and the relationship between linear equations and functions.

Linear Equations

A linear equation is an equation of the form $ax + b = c$, where a , b , and c are real numbers and $a \neq 0$. The graph of a linear equation is a straight line. The slope-intercept form of a line is $y = mx + b$, where m is the slope and b is the y-intercept. The point-slope form of a line is $y - y_1 = m(x - x_1)$, where m is the slope and (x_1, y_1) is a point on the line. The standard form of a line is $ax + by = c$, where a , b , and c are real numbers and a and b are not both zero.

Graphing Linear Equations

This section covers the graphing of linear equations. It includes the slope-intercept method, the point-slope method, and the standard form method.

Linear Functions

A linear function is a function of the form $f(x) = mx + b$, where m is the slope and b is the y-intercept. The graph of a linear function is a straight line. The slope-intercept form of a linear function is $f(x) = mx + b$, where m is the slope and b is the y-intercept. The point-slope form of a linear function is $f(x) - f(x_1) = m(x - x_1)$, where m is the slope and $(x_1, f(x_1))$ is a point on the function. The standard form of a linear function is $ax + by = c$, where a , b , and c are real numbers and a and b are not both zero.

Relationship between Linear Equations and Functions

This section covers the relationship between linear equations and functions. It shows that a linear equation can be written as a linear function, and vice versa.

Chapter 3: Quadratic Equations and Functions

This chapter covers quadratic equations and functions. It includes the standard form of a quadratic equation, the vertex form, and the factored form. It also covers the graphing of quadratic equations and functions, and the relationship between quadratic equations and functions.

Quadratic Equations

A quadratic equation is an equation of the form $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$, where a , b , and c are real numbers and $a \neq 0$. The graph of a quadratic equation is a parabola. The standard form of a quadratic equation is $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$, where a , b , and c are real numbers and $a \neq 0$. The vertex form of a quadratic equation is $y = a(x - h)^2 + k$, where a is the leading coefficient, h is the x-coordinate of the vertex, and k is the y-coordinate of the vertex. The factored form of a quadratic equation is $(x - r_1)(x - r_2) = 0$, where r_1 and r_2 are the roots of the equation.

Graphing Quadratic Equations

This section covers the graphing of quadratic equations. It includes the vertex method, the factored method, and the standard form method.

Quadratic Functions

A quadratic function is a function of the form $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$, where a , b , and c are real numbers and $a \neq 0$. The graph of a quadratic function is a parabola. The standard form of a quadratic function is $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$, where a , b , and c are real numbers and $a \neq 0$. The vertex form of a quadratic function is $f(x) = a(x - h)^2 + k$, where a is the leading coefficient, h is the x-coordinate of the vertex, and k is the y-coordinate of the vertex. The factored form of a quadratic function is $f(x) = (x - r_1)(x - r_2)$, where r_1 and r_2 are the roots of the function.

Relationship between Quadratic Equations and Functions

This section covers the relationship between quadratic equations and functions. It shows that a quadratic equation can be written as a quadratic function, and vice versa.

Manitoba to have provincial government inspectors inspect Indian Affairs residential and day schools in those provinces.²⁸ Schools often went years without inspection.²⁹ It was not until 1922 that the federal government arranged to have all the residential and day schools in Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta inspected by provincial school inspectors.³⁰ As provincial government employees, they had no authority to order improvements.³¹ Their inspections generally were limited to teaching- and classroom-related matters. Until 1985, when I. W. McKinnon was appointed as territorial school inspector, none of the schools in the Northwest Territories were subject to regular professional inspection.³²

The federal government was well aware that the schools were not well regulated. When it negotiated a new funding formula with the churches in the 1950s, the federal government insisted on the inclusion of provisions giving it "a very substantial degree of control" over the operation of the schools. Such control was needed, the federal government argued, because "the standards in many of the church-operated schools had been unacceptably low."³³ Despite this, the federal control over the schools remained limited. When discussing the prospect of taking the schools from the churches in the 1960s, Indian Affairs Assistant Deputy Minister R. F. Biddle noted, "At the present time, some principals feel under no obligation to support government policy."³⁴

The preceding sections constitute a brief summary of the Indian Affairs policies in relation to residential care. Not only was the system underregulated, but there was also little ability to enforce the existing regulations. These failures had significant impacts on student health. The failure to establish and enforce a proper dietary standard meant that students were undernourished for most of the system's history. This undernourishment increased their vulnerability to infectious disease. The failure to enforce the regulation prohibiting the admission of infectious students contributed to healthy students' being exposed to disease. Overcrowding increased infection rates within the schools. The failure to establish and enforce adequate regulation of disciplinary measures left students open to physical abuse. Such abuse undermined students' health in a variety of ways, particularly by increasing stress levels. It also drove many students to take the potentially dangerous and sometimes deadly decision to run away from school. It was not until the 1970s that nationwide instructions were given as to steps that principals were to take when students ran away. The failure to have such a policy in place prior to that date contributed to a number of student deaths.

Part 2: Administration and compliance

The Working Group on Missing Children and Unmarked Burials recommended that the Truth and Reconciliation Commission assess the "Departmental administration of regulations and church compliance with these regulations." The following

sections address the administration in relation to those areas that directly and indirectly affected student health.

Nutrition

By the late nineteenth century, health officials were well aware of the close link between diet and health. A key element in most tuberculosis treatment, other than rest and fresh air, was the provision of nutritious meals—including large servings of milk.⁷⁷ Despite this, it was not until 1958 that residential school funding was increased to a level thought by the Nutrition Division to allow for the provision of meals that would be “fully adequate nutritionally.”⁷⁸ Neither were there any enforced standards. Instead, as with other aspects of the operation of the schools, there was a series of vague and partial instructions and recommendations.⁷⁹ For example, the 1910 contract between the federal government and the churches for the operation of the boarding schools obliged the schools to provide students with “subsistence ... necessary to their personal comfort and safety.”⁸⁰ In 1942, the federal government set out a national dietary guideline for all Canadians, *Canada's Official Food Rules*. These guidelines were updated in 1944, 1949, and 1961.⁸¹

Lack of appropriate funding and standards meant that, for decades, the schools provided students with inadequate diets. From the 1890s onwards, there were reports from both school and Indian Affairs staff on the inadequacy of school diets.⁸² Reports of this nature continued into the 1930s.⁸³ The staples were often hard to obtain at the schools, a fact that was well known in Ottawa. Milk, in particular, was often in short supply. Although milk was not part of a traditional Aboriginal diet, North American medical experts in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries viewed it as an essential part of a child's diet and a key component of the diet of anyone with, or at risk of developing, tuberculosis.⁸⁴ Residential school dairy herds were often inadequate in size and in poor health. As a result, milk for residential school students was limited—and possibly tubercular.⁸⁵

Even when the dairy herds were producing satisfactorily, the students did not always get the full benefit of the milk the school was producing. The cream was often separated from the milk. The skimmed milk was then served to the students, and the butter and cream were sold to the public to increase school revenue. In 1922, British Columbia Indian Affairs official R. Cairns wrote, “If I had my way I would banish every separator from these Industrial and Boarding Schools. The pupils need the butter fat so much.”⁸⁶

The memoirs of former students have stressed the poor quality and limited quantity of residential school food.⁸⁷ Students at the Mohawk Institute in southern Ontario came to refer to their school as the “Mush Hole” because of the porridge that was a

breakfast staple.⁷⁶ The theft of food and the disciplining of students for stealing food were commonplace.⁷⁹ In at least one case, hungry students got in trouble with the law for stealing from local stores.⁷⁸ Runaways often said they had been motivated to leave by the poor quality of the food they received at the schools.⁷¹ Parents often took up their children's complaints, at times refusing to send their children to schools if they believed the food was insufficient.⁷²

Despite the many negative reports, the government was never prepared to provide the detailed direction needed to improve the diet—in large measure because officials were aware of the fact that few improvements could be made without a corresponding improvement in funding. When faced with reports of poor diet at a Saskatchewan school, Deputy Minister Duncan Campbell Scott simply instructed the Anglican Missionary Society of the Church of England in Canada that "the children be provided with good, substantial and well cooked food."⁷³ In preparation for the 1930 opening of the Shubenacadie, Nova Scotia, school, Dr. E. L. Stone, the director of medical services for Indian Affairs, advised the principal "to feed your pupils better than you would think necessary. The healthiest schools are those in which the feeding is best." He recommended plenty of whole milk, protein, and brown bread.⁷⁴ It was all good advice, but it was only advice and never converted into directives. This combination of vague instruction and inconsistent application characterized the government's policy towards student diet throughout this period.

The root problem was Ottawa's underfunding of the system, an underfunding that was at least initially based on a belief that children would be able to grow enough food to make the schools largely self-supporting. For some schools, economic self-sufficiency could be achieved only by cutting the students' diet, or by selling food or food products that might otherwise have gone to them. Principals also drew attention to the link between low grants and poor diet.⁷⁵

Indian Commissioner Edgar Dewdney's 1883 instruction to Battleford school principal Thomas Clarke, that "the strictest economy must be practised in all particulars," certainly had implications for school food policy.⁷⁶ Twenty years later, Indian Affairs official Martin Benson wrote that "there is almost too much economy exercised at this school as regards the clothing and diet of the pupils,—this having been rendered necessary by the increased cost of supplies, fuel and labor and the difficulty of recruiting pupils."⁷⁷ In the early 1930s, the federal government cut the school per capita grant by 15%. While grants remained low, food prices kept rising. In 1938, after the government's reduction of the per capita grant by 15%, the Anglican Indian and Eskimo Residential School Commission pointed out that from 1935 to 1938, the cost of flour had gone up 43%; rolled oats, 8%; tea, 24%; and sugar, 6%.⁷⁸

Residential school funding was cut again at the start of the Second World War. These cuts had the predictable negative impact on residential school diets. Parents, physicians, nutritionists, Indian Affairs agents, principals, and church officials all

raised concerns over poor diets at schools during the war years.⁷⁹ Starting in 1944, the Canadian Red Cross surveyed the diets at a number of residential schools.⁸⁰ The studies identified deficiencies of vitamins and minerals in the diets. Kitchens were poorly equipped, staff was poorly trained, and government funding was inadequate.⁸¹

The churches recognized that school diets were deficient and sought additional government funding. The 1946 report of the Anglican Church's Indian Work Investigation Commission into the condition of residential schools observed that a "physician associated with the Indian Department" had told them that he did not "consider that the diet given to the children is sufficiently varied or balanced. In view of the high incidence of tuberculosis; he recommended that the milk ration be increased." The Anglicans recommended that the ration be increased at once, observing that, in some cases, it needed to be doubled or tripled. The report noted that at one Anglican school, the food was "unsufficient [sic] in quantity and extremely poor in quality."⁸² At the hearing of the federal joint committee studying the *Indian Act* in 1947, the Protestant churches made it clear they were not receiving sufficient funds to feed students according to federal standards.⁸³ Aboriginal organizations appearing before the committee made the same point.⁸⁴

In 1946, the Nutrition Division of the federal Department of National Health and Welfare established a nutritional service for residential schools. As part of the service, nutritionists visited schools, assessed menus, and made recommendations for changes in diet and food preparation.⁸⁵ The service's reports from 1946 and 1947 confirmed the conclusions of earlier studies: the diet was limited, the food was poorly prepared, and the funding was inadequate.⁸⁶ In addition, the government continued to receive critical reports on residential school diets from Indian Affairs field staff and school staff.⁸⁷ After two years of work, the head of the Nutrition Division informed Indian Affairs that there had been no improvement at the residential schools that the division had been visiting, and that little could be expected without an improvement in funding (along with other needed changes).⁸⁸

Into the mid-1950s, schools were still failing to feed students at a level consistent with the Canada Food Rules. A 1956 evaluation of the Norway House, Manitoba, school menu found that the quantities of citrus fruits, vegetables (other than potatoes), and eggs were "considerably lower" than recommended by the Canada Food Rules. The evaluation report stated that the older children were not receiving enough milk.⁸⁹ There were similar reports from other schools.⁹⁰

Until 1957, schools were expected to pay for feeding their students with the money from the per capita grant. In that year, the government adopted a new system, under which schools were to be reimbursed for their actual expenditures. However, to control costs, a food allowance was established that operated on a per capita basis.⁹¹ The food allowance came to be based on a Nutrition Division estimate of the amount of money that would be required for diets to be "fully adequate nutritionally." The

Nutrition Division also recommended the rates be adjusted annually in response to changes in costs, shipping, and the availability of wholesale food supplies.⁹²

As a result of the new food allowance, there were improvements in the meals being served to students.⁹³ Although, in many cases, the new allowance represented an increase in funding, principals found it difficult to adhere to the Canada Food Rules and stay within budget.⁹⁴ After initial delays, the general food allowance was applied to the hostels in northern Canada.⁹⁵ Because the allowance did not fully account for price differences, some facilities found it difficult to feed students adequate meals and stay within budget. There were reports from as late as 1969 of northern residences unable to buy enough food to satisfy student appetites.⁹⁶

Many of the problems that inspectors identified in the 1940s were still being reported in the 1970s. Food budgets were reported as being too low and meals were inadequate.⁹⁷ In some residences, there still was little or no menu planning.⁹⁸ It was difficult to recruit and keep qualified cooks.⁹⁹ Poor cooking methods in some schools decreased the nutrient value of some meals.¹⁰⁰ At some schools, cooks still struggled with poorly designed and poorly maintained kitchens.¹⁰¹ Despite these limits, in comparison with the reports from the 1940s and 1950s, it is clear that the dietary conditions at the schools had significantly improved by the 1970s.¹⁰²

The failure to establish and enforce dietary standards, coupled with chronic underfunding, meant that the long-term health and physical development of the students were compromised by an inadequate diet. Undernourished children were also far more likely to succumb to infectious illnesses, particularly tuberculosis, which was rampant in the schools for much of their history.

Building conditions

According to an 1897 report, most of the industrial schools that the federal government had established in Manitoba and the Northwest Territories had been poorly sited and poorly built. Indian Affairs official Martin Benson wrote that the buildings had been "hurriedly constructed of poor materials, badly laid out, without due provision for lighting, heating or ventilation." In addition, drainage was poor and water and fuel supplies were inadequate.¹⁰³ Conditions were no better in the church-built boarding schools. In 1904, Indian Commissioner David Laird echoed Benson's comments when he wrote that the sites for the boarding schools on the Prairies seemed "to have been selected without proper regard for either water-supply or drainage. I need not mention any school in particular, but I have urged improvement in several cases in regard to fire-protection."¹⁰⁴ Over the next four decades, there was little overall improvement. In 1940, R. A. Hoey, who had served as the Indian Affairs superintendent of Welfare and Training since 1936, wrote a lengthy assessment of the condition

of existing residential schools. He concluded that many schools were "in a somewhat dilapidated condition" and had "become acute fire hazards." He laid responsibility for the "condition of our schools, generally," upon their "faulty construction." This construction, he said, had failed to meet "the minimum standards in the construction of public buildings, particularly institutions for the education of children."¹⁰⁶ Since there were no enforced federal or provincial building or fire codes at the time, it is likely that Hoey meant that the buildings, when they were constructed, did not meet the standards of the regularly accepted building practices of the day. This was the case even though it was not uncommon for the government's chief architect to review the building plans of boarding schools and industrial schools.¹⁰⁶

Poorly constructed buildings were poorly maintained. Government and church officials regularly made negative reports on building quality. The following are examples.

- In 1907, it was reported that "the dangerous condition of the building" (the Norway House, Manitoba, school) was "a menace to the health of the pupils."¹⁰⁷
- In 1908, Kuper Island, British Columbia, principal P. Claessen described his school as "insanitary [sic]" and "ruinous."¹⁰⁸
- In 1908, the boys' dormitory at the Anglican school on the Blood Reserve was described by an inspector as "without exception the worst building I was in on my travels and no time should be lost in replacing it."¹⁰⁹ The building was not replaced for twenty years, until 1927.¹¹⁰
- In 1923, the boys' school at Alert Bay, British Columbia, was described as "old, leaky, drafty and rests on timbers which in places have almost completely rotted away."¹¹¹
- In 1930, the Mission, British Columbia, school was described as being in "deplorable" condition. The following year, the Indian agent pointed out that a new school building was desperately needed, and a 1933 inspection observed that the building was in poor repair.¹¹²
- In 1936, the Anglican school in Wabasca, Alberta, was described as "deplorable," and, by the following year, an inspector said it was "unfit for anybody to live" in.¹¹³

The story of the Pine Creek, Manitoba, school illustrates the long decline that schools had undergone during the Great Depression of the 1930s. In 1939, it was discovered that the joist and cross beams holding up the floor of the school were sinking. The local Indian agent had concluded that the situation was "urgent and dangerous."¹¹⁴ Inspectors attributed many of its problems to poor construction. The age of the building and the number of defects led a government architect to conclude that the building did not merit repair.¹¹⁵ However, instead of building a new school, the government authorized the repair of the school.¹¹⁶

There were specific reports of poor water supply or unsanitary sewage conditions at the Morley, Alberta, school in 1892; the Red Deer, Alberta, school in 1896;

the Presbyterian school in Kamsack, Saskatchewan, in 1893; the Qu'Appelle, Saskatchewan, school in 1897; the Brandon, Manitoba, school in 1897; the Muncey, Ontario, school in 1901; the Battleford, Saskatchewan, school in 1901; the Regina, Saskatchewan, school in 1908; the Birtle, Manitoba, school in 1915; the Sandy Bay, Manitoba, school in 1927 and 1934; the Kuper Island, British Columbia, school in 1931 and 1934; and the Mission, British Columbia, school in 1938.¹¹⁷ These failings had documented health impacts. A report on conditions in the Kamloops, British Columbia, school in 1927 concluded that poor construction had contributed to "numerous infections, colds, bronchitis, and pneumonia during the past winter."¹¹⁸ From 1927 to 1940, there were ongoing reports on the inadequacy of the sewage system at the Catholic school in Kenora, Ontario.¹¹⁹ Two students were hospitalized and twenty-four more became ill from an outbreak of intestinal influenza at the school in 1939.¹²⁰

Furnaces were often inadequate. There were stories of teachers wearing fur coats in class and of cups of coffee freezing in classrooms.¹²¹ The boiler at the Birtle, Manitoba, school was in such poor repair in 1927 that it could not push the temperature above fifty degrees Fahrenheit (ten degrees Celsius) in the winter.¹²² At Norway House in northern Manitoba, the furnace was so poor that a church official concluded that it was "impossible to heat the buildings."¹²³

After surveying the legacy of inadequate investment in residential school buildings in 1940, R. A. Hoey recommended that the government close twelve schools. But most of them did not close for at least another ten years, and some not for another thirty-five years. In Manitoba, these included the Portage la Prairie school, which was not closed until 1975, and the Pine Creek school, which was closed in 1969. In Saskatchewan, the list of schools Hoey recommended be closed included Round Lake, which closed in 1950, and Thunderchild school in Delmas, which was destroyed by fire in 1948. In Alberta, the list included Wabasca, which was transferred to the Alberta government in 1966; Whitefish Lake, which was closed in 1950; Sturgeon Lake, which was closed in 1961; Sacred Heart in Brocket, which closed in 1961; and St. Cyprian in Brocket, which closed in 1961. In British Columbia, the list included Kitamaat, which closed in 1941; Port Simpson, which closed in 1948; and Squamish, which closed in 1959.¹²⁴

Although Hoey did succeed in closing some schools, there were still fifty-six in operation in southern Canada in 1969 when Indian Affairs took over full management of the system from the churches.¹²⁵ There had been some improvements in operational funding for the schools, but Indian Affairs refused to make significant capital investments in a system it intended to close. After 1969, Indian Affairs rapidly began to shut down the schools. But, in the intervening years, residential school students lived and studied for decades in aging and inadequate buildings, usually in crowded conditions.

Government and church officials continued to use the same damning words to describe the schools. In 1947, H. A. Alderwood of the Anglican Indian School Administration described the Chapleau, Ontario, school as "a disgrace" to both the

government and the church.¹⁰⁰ A 1950 inspection found the plaster in the Presbyterian school in Kenora to be in a "deplorable state of repair," the light was judged to be poor, and the sewage system appeared to be leaking.¹⁰¹ In the fall of 1950, Indian Affairs official R. S. Davis similarly described the Brandon school as being in "a very deplorable state of repair."¹⁰² Indian Affairs Inspector L. G. P. Waller pointed out in October 1951 that the heating system at the Desmarais, Alberta, school was "not entirely adequate."¹⁰³ He returned to the subject in his December 1952 report, noting that "an improved heating system is imperative for the health of the pupils and the staff." At the same time, he questioned the wisdom of putting a new heating system into the aging building, which might cost up to \$100,000.¹⁰⁴

The buildings in the years after the Second World War were not only physically deteriorating, but they were also overcrowded. This crowding strained the schools' sanitation systems and increased the spread of infectious illness. Overcrowding made the emptying of dormitories more difficult if a fire should break out. It was common for schools to enrol considerably more students than their authorized pupilage. In 1943, fifty-one of seventy-three schools had enrolments that exceeded their authorized pupilage.¹⁰⁵ In 1955, forty-one of sixty-six schools enrolled more students than their pupilage allowed.¹⁰⁶ Some schools were kept overcrowded as a matter of policy. A 1956 handbook for Roman Catholic principals and teachers stressed, "It is of the highest importance that all schools be maintained at or *near* the authorized number because, even at the present per capita rates, a reduction below the authorized figure means a loss in revenue."¹⁰⁷

The problem continued through the late 1950s and into the 1960s. In 1958, the enrolment at the Roman Catholic school in Kenora was 157, while the authorized pupilage was 110.¹⁰⁸ Despite instructions to reduce enrolment, in 1960, the principal announced his intention to accept 188 students, leading to a confrontation with Indian Affairs.¹⁰⁹ By 1964, the Roman Catholic school at Carleton was running at double its originally intended capacity. It had been built to accommodate 100 students, but had 200 residential students and 200 day students.¹¹⁰ In May 1967, at least three schools in British Columbia had taken in more than their allotted number of students. The Sechelt school, with a capacity of 88, had an enrolment of 128; the Fraser Lake school had a capacity of 110 and an enrolment of 181; and the Cariboo school had a rated capacity of 257 and an enrolment of 307.¹¹¹

Poor sanitation remained a threat to student health. An analysis of the Biotic, Manitoba, school's water in 1940 showed a high level of colon bacilli. An order was placed for typhoid serum to treat the staff and students. It was discovered that the school's chlorination plant was not working. Not only was it difficult to get repair specialists out to the school, but also the Indian agent worried that it would be difficult to recruit a school engineer who was familiar enough with the technology to properly maintain it.¹¹² In 1947, an Indian Affairs official wrote of the Alert Bay, British

Columbia, school, "On the hope" being only one toilet was found in order, most of the others being in a filthy condition and running over into the dormitories."¹⁰

The antiquated sewage system at the school at Moose Factory, Ontario, led to a "serious outbreak of typhoid fever among the staff and the pupils" in 1901.¹¹ The problem remained unresolved. In 1930, it was necessary to hospitalize a number of students who had "developed rashes due to sun burnings."¹² A federal health department official wrote in 1936 that sewage in Stuart Lake constituted a health hazard for students at the Fraser Lake, British Columbia, school.¹³ In the same year, raw sewage from the Assumption, Alberta, school was found to be polluting the Cam River, placing families living downstream at risk.¹⁴ In 1938, a medical health officer gave a notice to close the Roman Catholic school in The Pas, Manitoba, unless a sewage problem was dealt with immediately.¹⁵ In 1939, there was an outbreak of intestinal illness at the McIntosh, Ontario, school because the treatment system was both inadequate and operated only intermittently.¹⁶

Problems with water supply remained rampant.¹⁷ Shortly after taking over as principal in Wabasca, Alberta, Eric Rarrington reported in 1961 that the water at the school had, "to put it mildly, a flavour all its own, the colour is that of medium strong coffee also is very hard and discolors all receptacles it has the misfortune to touch."¹⁸

The Carleton Place Board of Health declared the Williams Lake, British Columbia, school a public nuisance in June 1965. The school, which Indian Affairs had judged to have outlived its usefulness almost twenty years earlier in 1946, was dumping 20,000 gallons (133,436 litres) of raw sewage into the Seton River on a daily basis. The board was threatening to have the school closed in two months if Indian Affairs did not have a promised sewage treatment plant in operation.¹⁹

A 1958 inspection of the Fort Frances, Ontario, school concluded that the building, which dated back to the nineteenth century, was beyond repair and should be condemned.²⁰ An inspector concluded in 1960 that the wiring system at the Pease Lake, Manitoba, school was "in very bad condition," the lighting intensity was poor throughout the building, and a lack of outlets led to the "use of many extension cords which constitute a fire hazard."²¹ The following year, the school principal informed Indian Affairs that the residence was a "hazard and should be closed." In cataloguing the major deficits, he wrote: "dormitories too small, plumbing fixtures absolutely worn out, lighting a fire hazard."²² The heating system at the McIntosh, Ontario, school was so inadequate that during one fall in the early 1960s, classroom temperatures fluctuated between fifty and eighty-five degrees Fahrenheit (ten to twenty-nine degrees Celsius).²³ In 1965, it was decided that the Roman Catholic school in Chazy, Alberta, was to be closed within five years. As a result, only emergency repairs were to be made to the building after that point.²⁴ (The school closed in 1968.)²⁵

A 1967 brief from the National Association of Principals and Administrators of Indian Residential Schools—which included principals of both Catholic and Protestant

schools—concluded, 'In the years that the Churches have been involved in the administration of the schools, there has been a steady deterioration in educational values. Year after year, complacency, demands and requests for improvements have, in the main, fallen upon deaf ears.'¹⁴

When E. A. Clark, the deputy minister responsible for Indian Affairs, met with church and school representatives to discuss the report, he told them that only emergency repairs would be undertaken at schools that Indian Affairs considered in danger.¹⁵ In 1973, D. LeBlanc, the administrator of the Catholic mission in Norway, pointed out to Indian Affairs that no major repairs had been carried out at the mission for the past six years and that, without major alterations, it would no longer be safe for children to live there. The needed improvements in water supply and fire safety would, he wrote, cost over \$100,000.¹⁶ The mission was closed the following year.¹⁷ The decision to run these poorly constructed and poorly maintained schools from the ground is further evidence of the government's failure to establish and meet appropriate building, maintenance, and sanitation standards for residential schools.

Poor sanitation placed the students at risk, while poor ventilation served to spread disease. Poor construction and lack of a proper water supply not only contributed to illness, but they also increased the risk of loss of life to a school fire. The failure to build and maintain adequate residential school facilities has to be seen as a significant contributing factor to the health problems, including the high death rates, that plagued the schools.

Health problems

As noted in the statistical analysis, the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada has identified 5,100 residential school student deaths on the *Names and Unmarked Death Registers*. Of these, 2,400 occurred prior to 1939, with 195 in the following sixty years (there were an additional 70 deaths from this period for which the exact date is not known). The residential school student death rate was dramatically higher than the death rate for the school-aged Canadian population for the period from 1939 to 1959. It is likely dramatically higher in the previous period as well, but there are no comparable census figures. For any given five-year period between 1959 and 1979, the residential school death rate was at least double the rate for the five- to fourteen-year-old subset of the general population. For some periods, it was as much as 4.75 times higher. It is also clear from the statistical analysis that the major cause of death was tuberculosis. It accounted for 57% of the deaths for which there is a known cause. Those who survived tuberculosis were left in a weakened condition and susceptible to contracting influenza, measles, diphtheria, and meningitis.

school.¹⁰⁰ It was not until January 1892 that Indian Affairs instructed its physicians who had been contracted to provide medical services on nearby reserves to extend those services to the school.¹⁰¹ In British Columbia, a doctor visited the Cranbrook school in the Kootenays only at the request of the Indian agent.¹⁰²

Many of the early schools did not have infirmaries. In 1893, Indian Affairs inspector T. F. Woodsworth reported that at the nine-year-old Qu'Appelle school, the "want of an infirmary is still very much felt." The previous year, he had managed to contain an outbreak of chicken pox only by keeping the infected students quarantined in the school gym.¹⁰³ Those infirmaries that did exist were often primitive. On an 1891 visit to the Rutland school, Indian Commissioner Hayter Reed concluded that the hospital ward was in such poor shape that they had been obliged to remove the children in it to the staff sitting-room. According to Reed, "the noise, as well as the bad smells, come from the lavatory underneath."¹⁰⁴ There were also reports of inadequate isolation facilities at the Regina, Saskatchewan, school (1901); the Anglican school in Onion Lake, Saskatchewan (1921); the Mission, British Columbia, school (1924); and the Muncey, Ontario, school (1935).¹⁰⁵ When diphtheria broke out at Duck Lake, Saskatchewan, in 1905, the nine students who fell ill were placed in a "large isolated house."¹⁰⁶

The 1918 global influenza epidemic left four children dead at the Red Deer, Alberta, school. When the influenza epidemic subsided, Principal I. F. Woodsworth complained to Indian Affairs:

For sickness, conditions at this school are nothing less than criminal. We have no isolation ward and no hospital equipment of any kind. The dead, the dying, and the sick and the convalescent, were all together. I think that as soon as possible the Department should put this school in shape to fulfil its function as an educational institution. At present it is a disgrace.¹⁰⁷

The Red Deer school was not a small, church-founded, mission school. It was an industrial school that had been established by the Methodists with the full co-operation and support of the federal government in 1893. Since the beginning of the twentieth century, school officials had been lobbying, with little or no success, for improvements in facilities to care for sick children.¹⁰⁸

Even though the 1910 contract with the federal government required all schools to have hospital accommodation to prevent the spread of infectious disease, many schools continued to be in need of a proper infirmary. Dr. F. L. Corbett's report of a 1920 inspection of five southern Alberta schools noted that at the Gleichen school, diseased students were not kept separate from healthy students, and many conditions, such as scabies, simply went unattended. He also observed that "it is a constant experience that Indian children being taken ill with tuberculous diseases while in the schools, and sent home, make remarkable recoveries in the open air life of the tent."

He said that if the principles of the sanatorium were incorporated in school design, the result would be "gratifying" and tuberculosis would be "reduced to a minimum."¹⁹⁷

At the Chapleau, Ontario, school, there was no facility for separating sick from healthy children, and neither was there one at the Shoal Lake, Ontario, school in 1915.¹⁹⁸ In 1921, sick and healthy children at the Kuper Island, British Columbia, school were being housed together, as was also the case at the Round Lake, Saskatchewan, school two years later.¹⁹⁹ The Roman Catholic principals petitioned the federal government in 1924 for the establishment of sick rooms at each school, under the supervision of a competent nurse. At the same time, they objected to the sanitary inspection of the schools by government-appointed nurses, since they recommended changes "leading to the transformation of our schools into hospitals or sanatoriums."²⁰⁰ There were also regular reports that schools could not afford to hire needed nursing staff.²⁰¹

In other cases, sick children were not being treated at all. In 1915, Indian Affairs official I. D. McLean wrote to the Indian agent at Chapleau, Ontario, about "several children afflicted with eczema who had apparently not been receiving treatment" at the Chapleau school. The agent was instructed to arrange for treatment and regular medical inspections of the school.²⁰² In 1922, Indian Affairs Superintendent of Indian Education Russell Ferrier worried that Chapleau principal George Prewer was "somewhat slow to call in medical attention," although he acknowledged that Prewer was "fairly well qualified to look after minor ailments."²⁰³ Indian Affairs instructed the principal: "Call upon the services of the Medical Officer without hesitation."²⁰⁴

While there were improvements, Indian Affairs officials continued to be concerned about the quality of care provided by school infirmaries at the end of the 1950s.²⁰⁵ Complaints from principals make it clear that even into the late 1960s, there were still severe limitations on the range of health services being provided to residential school students.²⁰⁶

Not surprisingly, cases of tuberculosis were diagnosed in the early years in the schools. In 1886, at the height of the tuberculosis epidemic on the Qu'Appelle Reserve, five children died at the residential school. Principal Joseph Hugonnard said the deaths were not due to contagious disease. However, since he believed that tuberculosis was hereditary rather than contagious, it is possible that the five deaths were, in fact, due to tuberculosis.²⁰⁷ By 1896, various medical advisors had informed Indian Affairs that tuberculosis was contagious, that schools should have facilities that would allow students with tuberculosis to be isolated, that the ventilation in the schools was of such poor quality that it increased the risk of infection, that student health would improve with improvements in diet, and that it was essential the unhealthy students be screened out during the admission process.²⁰⁸ This advice was in keeping with medical thinking of the day, and, if it had been acted upon, likely would have served to improve student health. However, it was largely ignored.

As early as 1903, observers, including Indian Affairs officials and physicians, came to conclude that conditions in Aboriginal communities, even communities with high levels of tuberculosis, might be healthier than conditions in residential schools. They also recognized that treating children in tent hospitals and ensuring that they had access to fresh air was not that different from life in many Aboriginal communities.²⁰⁹

In 1907, 1908, and 1909, Indian Affairs health officials conducted three sets of inspections in western Canada. These reports all identified serious health problems in the schools and were accompanied by wide-ranging recommendations. Dr. Peter Bryce's 1907 inspection of thirty-five residential schools in the three prairie provinces is the most well known of these studies. He was highly critical of the poor quality of the ventilation in the buildings, which, he thought, contributed to high infection rates. He also thought local physicians and school staff underestimated the dangers of tuberculosis.²¹⁰ Based on information provided to him by school principals on the condition of present and former students, he wrote that "of a total of 1,537 pupils reported upon nearly 25 per cent are dead."²¹¹ Bryce's 1907 report received considerable attention in the national media of the day.²¹²

Three options

In the first decade of the twentieth century, there were three options presented to the government and churches to address the tuberculosis crisis. The first was to close the schools, allowing the children to be raised in their homes and educated in on-reserve day schools. The second was to treat most children as likely tuberculosis sufferers and turn the schools into sanatoria. A third was to institute a strict system of medical screening to ensure that no child infected with tuberculosis was admitted to the schools. None of these measures could have succeeded without increased federal government investment in measures to improve the housing, clothing, and diet of Aboriginal children.

The health crisis in the residential schools—which was largely a tuberculosis crisis—was so severe that, during the first decade of the twentieth century, the first two options were considered but eventually abandoned. Samuel Blake, a leading figure in the Anglican Church, led the near-successful campaign to close a large number of the schools. Blake was spurred into action by both the high death rates in the schools and the amount of money the Missionary Society of the Church of England in Canada was spending on the schools.²¹³ At his prodding, the Protestant missionary societies agreed to a plan that would have seen them replace most of their residential schools in western Canada with government-funded, church-run day schools.²¹⁴ The plan was dropped in 1908 in the face of opposition from Protestant missionaries based in the West, and Roman Catholic unwillingness to close their residential schools. Indian

Affairs minister Frank Oliver made it clear he would not pursue a residential school policy that did not have the support of the churches.²¹⁵

The other option was to turn the schools into government-run sanatoria. As early as 1904, there were proposals to use at least one of the residential schools as a sanatorium for students who had been diagnosed with tuberculosis.²¹⁶ Similar proposals were made in subsequent years. In 1906, Dr. Bryce wrote that sanatorium care was required to reduce infection and increase chances of recovery among First Nations children. Due to the high infection rate in First Nations communities, he recommended the construction of regional "tent" sanatoria.²¹⁷ This idea was not out of step with general views on how to address tuberculosis, particularly among low-income populations.²¹⁸ Such tent hospitals were constructed at residential schools in British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, and Manitoba.²¹⁹ In addition, there were calls from business and medical groups to establish sanatoria in each province in which industrial schools were located.²²⁰

In his 1907 report, Bryce recommended that for locations where local hospitals did not exist, "a small tent hospital be attached to the school, wherein tuberculized and scrofulous patients may receive necessary treatment and where, instead of being sent home to die, they may in most cases, when dealt with early, be nursed back to health without jeopardizing the health of the other pupils."²²¹ By 1909, Bryce had concluded that the rate of tuberculosis infection in the First Nations community across the Prairies was so severe that it was appropriate to consider each student as "a case of probable tuberculosis—in a word a patient." He recommended that the residential schools be converted into sanatoria and placed under his medical—as opposed to church—authority.²²²

There are three points that need to be borne in mind about Bryce's proposal. First, it would not have reduced the number of Aboriginal children who were being separated from their homes and communities. Instead of living in highly regimented residential schools, they would have been living in highly regimented sanatoria. For example, Bryce included a significant student work component in his proposal. He expected that "squads of the stronger children would be organized to assist in the indoor and outdoor work, wholly from the standpoint of their physical ability."²²³ Second, sanatoria would amount to an advance over the schools only if there was an increase in funding to allow for significant renovations and improvements in diet and clothing (particularly for cold weather). Third, sanatoria care did not cure tuberculosis: improvements in care would have brought the death rates down, but they would not have eliminated them. For comparison from 1904 to 1929, of the 6,695 patients admitted to the Toronto Free Hospital for the Consumptive Poor (a Toronto tuberculosis sanatorium for the indigent), 45% had died. Of those who survived their first thirty days in the sanatorium, only 38% were judged to have benefited from their treatment.²²⁴

Bryce's proposal was rejected by Indian Affairs for the same reasons that Blake's was: the government was not prepared to challenge the churches. Duncan Campbell Scott, who had become the Indian Affairs superintendent of education in 1909, wrote that "the Churches would not be willing to give up their share of the joint control."²²⁵

Rather than turning the schools into sanatoria, Scott thought, the government needed to "carry out some common sense reforms to remove the imputation that the Department is careless of the interests of these children." His list of reforms included the denial of school admission for any children who were "tubercular"; the construction of open-air dormitories; an improved diet; an increase in the per capita grant to \$100; and the negotiation of a contract with the churches that would set out expectations regarding sanitation, diet, and exercise.²²⁶

Many of these measures were included in the 1910 contract that Scott negotiated on behalf of the federal government with the churches. That agreement required that all schools have "hospital accommodation for the isolation of pupils with infectious diseases or tuberculosis" and a "modern system of ventilation in dormitories and class-rooms and sufficient air space in dormitories and class-rooms for the number of pupils accommodated." Class A schools, which received a higher level of funding, were also to have "a pure and plentiful water-supply distributed throughout the building, ... a proper system of sanitary water closets, drainage, and disposal of sewage," and "modern heating apparatus, hot water, steam or hot air." Students were not to be admitted "until, where practicable, a physician, to be named by the Superintendent General, has reported that the child is in good health and suitable as an inmate of said school." Most significantly, the contract raised the per capita rates for all the boarding schools. The rate for some of the schools in central Ontario was increased from \$60 to \$80 (a 33.3% increase). In the West, the minimum increase was from \$72 to \$100 (a 52% increase). The rate for schools in the Northern Division (200 miles—322 kilometres—or more from a railway) went from \$72 to \$125 (a 74% increase). The government committed itself to providing the schools with medicine and maintaining government-owned buildings that were "in good condition and repair and provide for proper sanitation and sanitary appliances."²²⁷

The 1910 contract did improve conditions in many schools: certainly, the increase in the per capita grant allowed for improvements in clothing and diets. However, as noted above, the outbreak of the First World War in 1914 meant that the government was not able to fully implement its intention to renovate many of the boarding schools. Wartime inflation also severely reduced the value of the funding increases. By the 1920s, many of the schools were continuing to struggle financially. Financial problems led inevitably to further crowding, poor building conditions, increased demands for student labour, decreases in the quality of the diet, poor-quality clothing, and reduced access to medical attention. Conditions were further exacerbated by repeated budget cuts during the Great Depression of the 1930s and again during the

Second World War. As a result, the churches could rarely meet the various health and building-condition requirements in the contract. For its part, the government did not enforce them, since it was unwilling to provide the money needed to bring the schools into compliance.

The 1910 contract could work as an effective response to tuberculosis in the schools only if students who were infected with the disease were either denied admission or were discharged once diagnosed. The government was slow in developing a clear national policy on this issue and largely ineffective in enforcing it once it finally was in place.

The government was also slow to develop a health-related admissions policy. The instructions that Indian Commissioner Edgar Dewdney issued to Battleford school principal Thomas Clarke in 1883 did not include any health-related advice. Neither did they require that students undergo a medical inspection before being admitted to the school. Indeed, the recommendation that the school give preference to "orphans and children without any person to look after them" increased the likelihood that the early recruits would be of poor health.²²⁸ The following year, Clarke reported that a student had died in May of that year "from internal injuries received previous to his entering the school." Clarke recommended that in the future, students "should be examined by a medical officer before they are received into the school."²²⁹ Deputy Minister Lawrence Vankoughnet's instructions for the opening of the Cranbrook, British Columbia, school in 1889 stated: "All pupils admitted should be free from disease, and an apartment light and airy, and as far removed from the other rooms as possible, should be set apart for any who may fall sick."²³⁰ This was not, however, a system-wide instruction.

The government continued to ignore opportunities to issue a system-wide instruction. The 1892 Order-in-Council that established the per capita funding model for all industrial schools required that schools maintain "dietary and domestic comfort." The only restriction on admission was a requirement that no child be admitted without the approval of the Indian commissioner. It did not stipulate that there be medical examinations for all students prior to admission.²³¹

It was not until 1896 that Indian Commissioner A. E. Forget distributed health certification forms to all principals in Manitoba and the North-West Territories.²³² Because of difficulties in recruitment, principals continued to accept children who were ill. It was only in 1900 that Middlechurch, Manitoba, principal James Dagg could report, "Owing to the great number of applications for admission, we were enabled to discharge every case of scrofula and consumption we had in the school, thus making the health of our pupils excellent."²³³ In 1901, when responding to a request to transfer a boy with scrofulous sores from the Roman Catholic school on the Blood Reserve to a hospital in Calgary, Indian Affairs education official Martin Benson wrote that "if the

Department's instructions were properly followed out, no scrofulous pupils would be admitted to such schools."²³⁴

In 1907, some principals were asserting their right to take in tubercular children. The principal of the Anglican school at Brocket, Alberta, W. R. Haynes, wrote that the local doctor did not admit any child "who has any signs of the dread disease [tuberculosis]." But he recognized that if "every pupil were rejected on the grounds of tuberculosis in their families, I am afraid you might as well close the schools altogether."²³⁵ In 1907, Qu'Appelle principal Hugonnard argued that many students with scrofula had "no better place to be sent" than his school.²³⁶ A 1908 inspection of five Alberta schools concluded that 80% of the students at all five schools had tuberculosis of the lungs. At two schools, the infection rate was 100%.²³⁷

By 1909, the school application form for all residential schools instructed physicians who were inspecting potential students not to admit any "child suffering from scrofula or any form of tubercular disease."²³⁸ As noted above, the 1910 contract between the federal government and the churches governing the operation of the schools required that students not be admitted to schools "until, where practicable, a physician, to be named by the Superintendent General, has reported that the child is in good health and suitable as an inmate of said school."²³⁹

From the start, the churches objected to the provision. As early as 1910, High River, Alberta, principal J. Riou was questioning the fairness of this requirement for medical screening. He asked, "Is this examination required in white schools?"²⁴⁰ Some principals were also reluctant to discharge students with active tuberculosis. Qu'Appelle school principal G. Leonard refused to carry out a local physician's instructions to send tubercular students to a local sanatorium in 1922, claiming they would be "better off at the school than in the sanatorium."²⁴¹

Not all physicians were capable of identifying tuberculosis. In 1911, Indian Affairs secretary J. D. McLean acknowledged, "If the medical attendant does not exercise great care and is not possessed of considerable experience in detecting the presence of tuberculosis, it may be quite possible that he is passing pupils who could not possibly be admitted under the restrictions laid down by the admission forms."²⁴² In 1914, McLean instructed the Indian agent responsible for the Chapleau school to ensure that the doctor who examined prospective students took "care to see that they are in good health and show no traces of tuberculosis."²⁴³ The following year, three tubercular students at the school had to be removed to a hospital.²⁴⁴

The schools continued to admit and retain tubercular students into the 1930s. The following are some examples from this period.

- In 1930, 88.30% of students at the Roman Catholic and Anglican schools on the Blood Reserve in Alberta tested positive for tuberculosis infection.²⁴⁵ In 1937, the figure was 84.03%.²⁴⁶

- In 1933, C. C. Perry, the assistant Indian commissioner for British Columbia, reported that if the "physically unfit were eliminated from the [Cranbrook] School on medical examination, the School would have to be closed."¹⁹⁷
- Seven of fourteen students admitted to the Sioux Lookout, Ontario, school in 1933 had active tuberculosis.¹⁹⁸
- Budget cutting meant that in 1934, doctors did not have access to the most effective technologies, such as x-rays, in examining students.¹⁹⁹
- In 1935, the doctor charged with examining students for admission to the Fraser Lake, British Columbia, school declined to carry out a general examination of the students.²⁰⁰ He stated that if he were to "apply the standards of health to them that is applied to children of the white schools, that I should have to discharge 80% of them and there would be no school left."²⁰¹
- Roman Catholic Bishop Guy opposed sending tubercular students at the Qu'Appelle school to the Qu'Appelle Sanatorium in 1935.²⁰²
- A 1935 United Church report showed that four of five children entering the Chilliwack, British Columbia, and Brandon, Manitoba, schools had "some evidence of T.B.—either active or quiescent."²⁰³
- In 1936, a doctor inquiring into the death of a student due to tubercular meningitis at the Kamloops, British Columbia, school concluded that the "child was no doubt developing the disease before admission to the school."²⁰⁴
- In 1937, missionaries were recruiting students and having them admitted to the Fraser Lake school without first receiving authorization from the Indian agent.²⁰⁵
- In 1937, Churry, Alberta, principal I. Blou opposed sending all active tubercular cases to the local Anglican hospital.²⁰⁶ This opposition continued into 1938.²⁰⁷

Into the 1950s, at some schools, these examinations were perfunctory, ineffective, or non-existent. Responsibility for this failure appears to have been shared between Indian Affairs and the churches. The death of a student from tubercular meningitis at the Anglican school in Fort George, Québec, prompted the principal to complain in 1946 that the boy had been admitted by the Indian agent, even though the boy had previously been diagnosed as having active tuberculosis.²⁰⁸ The hospitalization of 13 of the 100 students attending the Kuper Island school with tuberculosis during the 1947–48 school year led local Indian Affairs official R. H. Moore to comment that the method of medical examinations was "ineffective from the point of detecting any latent disease."²⁰⁹ In 1951, the principal of the Sandy Bay, Manitoba, school admitted thirteen students without either seeking the department's approval or having them examined by a doctor.²¹⁰ The flawed examination system meant that students with other infectious illnesses and serious health problems were also being admitted to the schools. In 1948, P. E. Moore, who was at that time acting superintendent of medical services for Indian Affairs, wrote that the congenital syphilis a student was suffering

from had not been detected by his pre-admission medical examination for the Fraser Lake school.¹⁰¹

An ongoing problem in the Northwest Territories in the first half of the twentieth century was the absence of any medical examinations prior to school admissions. In 1910, three children, who had been recently transferred from Fort Good Hope to Fort Resolution, became ill shortly after their arrival at the school. They had been admitted without having undergone the required medical inspection on the grounds "that they were orphans and had to be provided for in some way." Two of them died, leading Indian Affairs official H. E. Dury to recommend that "the regulation concerning the admission of children to these boarding schools be more rigidly enforced."¹⁰² After a tour of the western Arctic in 1944, Dr. George Wharmston, one of Canada's leading public health physicians of the period, concluded, "Only in the minority of instances, however, is there a regular examination of all children on admission and no very surveys are carried out. In some schools, immunization and vaccination are practised in others, not at all."¹⁰³ In the intervening years, there had been numerous cases of students being admitted without examination or being admitted with contagious diseases.¹⁰⁴ As late as 1953, students were being admitted to the Baptist home in Whitehorse without a doctor's examination.¹⁰⁵

In the context of this discussion, it was noted that the government had three policy options: close the schools, turn the schools into sanatoria, or exclude infected children from admission. On paper, it chose the last option. However, as the preceding examples make clear, it never effectively attempted to screen out infected children. As a result, the residential schools amplified rather than reduced the Aboriginal tuberculosis crisis.

Positive initiatives

The work of the Qa'Appelle Indian Demonstration Health Unit in the 1930s shows that when appropriate policies were put in place, it was possible to reduce the level of tuberculosis in residential schools. The health unit ensured that students at the Qa'Appelle and 116 13th residential schools were given a tuberculosis skin test. Students judged to be in a contagious condition were discharged. In 1930, before the health unit was established, 87% of the students at these two schools had tested positive for tuberculosis. By 1933, the percentage of students testing positive for tuberculosis, although still very high, had dropped by more than 80%, to below 10%, in the two schools.¹⁰⁶

Given these results, Dr. George Ferguson, the director of medical services for the Saskatchewan Anti-Tuberculosis League and medical director of the Fort Qa'Appelle Sanatorium, recommended that Indian Affairs extend the unit's work to the rest of the province. His specific plan called for the testing of all residential school dairy

books, a key reading of all New Nations students at the start of each school year, and the conversion of a residential school into a community dedicated to the education and enrichment of children who either had active tuberculosis or were tuberculous.¹² Indian Affairs Health Officer H. L. Stone believed the children would not be willing to leave one of the existing schools to be moved into a community. He felt it would keep the boys with the constitution of single government run hospitals. If there were in the community, there would be objections to "the Government putting Government children in a house of public institutions, or other thing."¹³ In 1939, the federal government continued to give greater priority to the care of the children than to the health needs of the general children.

It was not until the fall of 1948 that the federal government significantly expanded the number of students being treated for tuberculosis and the sophistication of the technology being used to treat them.¹⁴ The goal was to remove children with active tuberculosis from the schools.¹⁵ The fact that this was still the government's priority demonstrates the health concerns of officials' institutions in the past. Throughout the 1930s, several tuberculosis clinics continued to be built at many schools to an effort to identify and remove students with active tuberculosis.¹⁶ These measures had significant impact. For example, the 1941 survey of the Minnesota school reported that "for the second year in succession, there are no cases requiring institutional treatment."¹⁷ Such results were not always possible, and the results of that fact were questionable. In June 1941, it was reported that there were six students at the Minnesota, Ontario, school who required institutional treatment. Two of the cases were described as appearing to be "of long standing" in raising the issue with the Ontario Tuberculosis Control Division, Dr. H. C. Walker of the Fort William Sanatorium believed that there was a need to bring students at both the St. Louis and Ontario schools.¹⁸

Once active cases were identified, it was not always possible, even in the 1930s, for officials to find places for students to live in community.¹⁹ Two students from the St. Louis, Ontario, school were hospitalized with tuberculosis in January 1941. In reporting on other cases, Dr. Gordon L. Hall wrote that he thought that in theory, "suitable cases" could be treated at the school if they received "care and supervision and reasonable cooperation." This seemed unlikely, however, since the school was "completely short of staff and the registered nurse on duty said that she was unable to do that any amount could be expected to perform effectively." Hall agreed to allow such students to stay in the school temporarily, but added in another short paragraph, since he felt the supervision they received at the school was "much to be desired."²⁰ Some residential schools were viewed as being possible treatment facilities for children with tuberculosis. In the case of one girl who was diagnosed with tuberculosis in November 1940, it was felt that her case was not as serious as in regular tuberculosis treatment. Instead, a doctor recommended that her case follow treatment

Introduction

The *Yan'an Rectification Movement* (Yan'an zhengfeng yundong) was a major political and cultural movement in the history of the People's Republic of China. It was initiated by Mao Zedong in 1942 and lasted until 1944. The movement aimed to unify the Party's ideology and to eliminate the influence of the Kuomintang (Nationalist Government) and the West. It was a key event in the development of the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) and the People's Republic of China. The movement was characterized by a series of campaigns and debates, which were held in Yan'an, the base of the CCP at the time. The movement was a turning point in the history of the CCP and the People's Republic of China. It was a key event in the development of the Chinese Communist Party and the People's Republic of China. The movement was a turning point in the history of the CCP and the People's Republic of China.

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A 1908 directive requiring that "all dormitory, school-room, interior hall, and exterior doors should open outwards" to ensure that "the building may be emptied quickly and without danger of blockade in case of fire" was issued only to the principals in private schools.¹⁰⁷ This did not become a national expectation until 1927. A circular informing principals that fire-escape doors should open outward was issued a week after a fire claimed twenty lives at the Huronval school.¹⁰⁸ It was not until 1932 that a circular insisted that fire escapes be "efficient, kept in repair, free from snow or ice and unlocked exits to them must open out."¹⁰⁹ Similar instructions were issued in February 1936 and in February 1942.¹¹⁰

Dangerous practices

These limited policy directions did little to alter the conditions in the schools. Throughout their history, residential schools were poorly constructed and maintained, and had inadequate fire protection, fire alarms, and fire exits. The policy prohibiting the locking of fire exits and dormitories was violated with impunity. Overcrowding further increased the risk of death or injury in the event of a fire.¹¹¹

Poor construction, poor maintenance

Government inspectors regularly described buildings as being "fire traps." For example, the term was applied to the Beile, Manitoba, school in 1901; the Mission, British Columbia, school in 1906; the Saint Ste. Marie, Ontario, school in 1908; the Hobbema, Alberta, school in 1910; the Qu'Appelle, Saskatchewan, school in 1912 and 1913; the Ahousaht, British Columbia, school, in 1917; the Lac La Ronge, Saskatchewan, school, in 1911; the Moose Factory, Ontario, school in 1914; the Fort Providence, Northwest Territories, school in 1917; and the Anglican and Roman Catholic schools in Brocket, Alberta, in 1919.¹¹² The term *fire trap* was replaced by *fire hazard* by the 1960s. For example, a 1960 inspection report described the Kamuck, Saskatchewan, school as a "fire hazard and a potential threat to the lives of the children still living in it."¹¹³ The Roman Catholic school in Onion Lake was termed a "fire hazard" in 1974.¹¹⁴

Limited fire fighting capacity

The high risk of fire was coupled with poor water supply at many schools. For example, deficiencies in water supply were reported at Sarcove (T'suu Tina), Alberta, in 1896; Fraser Lake, British Columbia, in 1923; Edmonton, Alberta, in 1924; Fort Simpson, British Columbia, in 1937; and Ahousaht, British Columbia, in 1939.¹¹⁵ The firefighting

equipment at schools across the country was regularly reported as being poorly maintained or unsuitable until the end of the 1930s. Examples of schools with inadequate firefighting equipment were Gleichen, Alberta, in 1921; Qu'Appelle, Saskatchewan, in 1927; Edmonton, Alberta, in 1925; Williams Lake, British Columbia, in 1932; and Fort Alexander, Manitoba, in 1935.³⁶⁵

This problem was not unique to the early years of the system. Inadequate water supply and firefighting equipment were noted at the Presbyterian school in Kenora, Ontario, in 1940; Sioux Lookout, Ontario, in 1940; Cranbrook, British Columbia, in 1941 and 1945; Fort Alexander, Manitoba, in 1941; Brantford, Ontario, in 1946; Edmonton, Alberta, in 1946 and 1949; Whitefish Lake, Alberta, in 1946 and 1948; Prince Albert, Saskatchewan, in 1951 and 1954; Kamsack, Saskatchewan, in 1955; Lower Post, British Columbia, in 1956; Fort George, Québec, in 1956; the Anglican and Roman Catholic schools in Cardston, Alberta, in 1957; Kuper Island, British Columbia, in 1958; and McIntosh, Ontario, in 1958.³⁶⁷

Fire alarms

Problems with the effectiveness of fire alarms were identified at Birtle, Manitoba, in 1943; Hobbema, Alberta, in 1944; Brantford, Ontario, in 1946; Prince Albert, Saskatchewan, in 1953; Kamsack, Saskatchewan, in 1955; and Calais, Alberta, in 1959.³⁶⁸

Inadequate fire escapes

An effective fire-escape system was one that allowed students to exit a school building quickly and safely in an emergency. From the point of view of a residential school principal, such a system had two potential drawbacks. First, a fire escape that allowed students to leave the school quickly during a fire could also be used by a student or students who simply wished to run away from the school.³⁶⁹ Second, an exterior staircase from a dormitory to the ground ran both ways. Boys could climb up such a staircase to gain access to the girls' dormitory (and vice versa). As a result, principals resisted the installation of outside fire escapes.³⁷⁰ When they were finally obliged to install them, they often chose dangerous and frightening pole-style escapes that students were expected to slide down in the event of fire.³⁷¹

Deficiencies in fire escapes were reported at schools in Squamish, British Columbia, in 1923; Lac La Ronge, Saskatchewan, in 1923; Muncy, Ontario, in 1924; Mission, British Columbia, in 1926 and 1930; Kenora, Ontario, in 1926, 1927, 1928, and 1938; Birtle, Manitoba, in 1927; Portage la Prairie, Manitoba, in 1927; Cranbrook, British Columbia, in 1927, 1938, and 1938; Brocket, Alberta, in 1927; Round Lake,

Saskatchewan, in 1929 and 1938; Whitefish Lake, Alberta, in 1929; Hobbema, Alberta, in 1930; File Hills, Saskatchewan, in 1932; Fraser Lake, British Columbia, in 1932, 1938, and 1939; Christie, British Columbia, in 1934; Cluny, Alberta, in 1935; Delmas, Saskatchewan, in 1937; Sandy Bay, Manitoba, in 1938; Grayson, Saskatchewan, in 1938; Hobbema, Alberta, in 1938; Sioux Lookout, Ontario, in 1938; and Lytton, British Columbia, in 1939.³²²

Again, this problem was not restricted to the system's early years. Inadequate fire escapes were reported at Shubenacadie, Nova Scotia, in 1946; Christie, British Columbia, in 1946; Brantford, Ontario, in 1946; the Roman Catholic school in Kenora, Ontario, in 1947; Whitefish Lake, Alberta, in 1948; Moose Factory, Ontario, in 1950; Fort Frances, Ontario, in 1950; the Presbyterian school in Kenora, Ontario, in 1950; Prince Albert, Saskatchewan, in 1951; Kamsack, Saskatchewan, in 1955; Fort Providence, Northwest Territories, in 1957; the Anglican and the Catholic schools in Cardston, Alberta, in 1957; Jousard, Alberta, in 1958; McIntosh, Ontario, in 1958; and Calais, Alberta, in 1959.³²³ Typical of many inspection reports was the 1938 observation that the poor condition of the plaster walls throughout the Cranbrook, British Columbia, school meant that "should fire break out it would be drawn up through the walls and ceilings through the places where the plaster is missing, and run under the floors all over the building before anyone would be aware."³²⁴ An inspection report on the Mohawk Institute in Brantford, Ontario, concluded, "We cannot get away from the fact that this building, of wooden structure inside, would allow a fire to spread very rapidly and with the number of children and supervisors, particularly on the second and third floors, there is every possibility that if fire did take place unnoticed, loss of life could very likely happen."³²⁵ Despite this, many of the problems remained unaddressed for decades.³²⁶ The federal government often was slow to respond to recommendations to improve conditions. In 1950, the Office of the Ontario Fire Marshal described the fire exits at the Moose Factory school as being "extraordinarily unsatisfactory—if a fire started in the night in the building I could foresee only a shocking sacrifice of life."³²⁷ In 1954, Anglican Church representative Henry Cook complained that at the Moose Factory school, "one door allows for exit and the windows do not open to allow escape by that means if one wishes to jump to the ground."³²⁸

Locking fire-escape doors

To prevent students from using fire-escape doors in ways deemed improper, many principals kept the doors locked. There are examples of this practice from Regina, Saskatchewan, in 1908; Brocket, Alberta, in 1925; Fort Alexander, Manitoba, in 1930; Sandy Bay, Manitoba, in 1931; The Pas, Manitoba, in 1931; Morley, Alberta, in 1935; Elkhorn, Manitoba, in 1937; and Port Simpson, British Columbia, in 1938.³²⁹

The Indian commissioner for the Prairies, W. M. Graham, described the practice as "almost criminal" in 1925.³³⁰ Six years later, he recommended that the principal of The Pas school be removed from office for locking the fire exits. Not only did the principal continue in office, but he also continued to lock the fire exits.³³¹

As noted earlier, Indian Affairs issued circulars in 1932, 1938, and 1942, instructing principals and Indian agents that fire exits were to be kept unlocked.³³² Despite these instructions, there are reports of locked exits and dormitories at the Presbyterian school in Kenora, Ontario, in 1940, as well as at the schools in Birtle, Manitoba, in 1945; Morley, Alberta, in 1946; Alert Bay, British Columbia, in 1947 and 1961; Chapleau, Ontario, in 1948; Portage la Prairie, Manitoba, in 1949 and 1955; Fort Frances, Ontario, in 1952; Grayson, Saskatchewan, in 1952; Beauval, Saskatchewan, in 1952 and 1956; Alberni, British Columbia, in 1960; Assiniboia in Winnipeg, Manitoba, in 1962; Brandon, Manitoba, in 1970; Qu'Appelle, Saskatchewan, in 1973; Hobbema, Alberta, in 1975 and 1981; and the Fort McPherson, Northwest Territories, residence in 1976.³³³

The Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada has not been able to identify any case where significant action was taken against principals who locked fire-escape doors. The continuous violation of a clear and often-stated government policy reflects the unwillingness of the federal government to enforce its own regulations, and the willingness of school authorities to defy them.

Failure to eliminate pole fire escapes

The major problems with many school fire escapes were identified in a 1949 memorandum by the chief of the Engineering and Construction Division, Department of Mines and Resources. The memorandum noted that in many residential schools, the fire escapes could be reached only through the windows, with sills often four feet (1.2 metres) above the floor. For small children, simply getting over the windowsill could present a problem. Once out the window, the children would usually have to go down an iron pole. This was "impracticable for small children." The memorandum said that steel stairs did not offer a solution for situations where "small children must descend several stories under winter conditions." These uncovered escapes could become blocked with snow or covered with ice. It was recommended that schools install either fully enclosed and accessible fire-escape towers that would contain stairways, or enclosed steel chutes.³³⁴ This report could have served as the basis for improvement, but the problems it identified often went unaddressed. There were reports from across the country about the inadequacy of pole-type fire escapes, with particular attention drawn to the fact that small children were frightened to use them.³³⁵ It was not until May 1954—nine years after an Indian Affairs inspector first called for the replacement of the pole fire escapes—at the Fort Alexander, Manitoba, school that a new fire

escape with steel steps and handrail was installed.³³⁶ In 1946, Indian Affairs official J. H. Leyland wrote of the pole-type escapes at the Edmonton school:

It is difficult to imagine any person and especially small children, being able to safely make their escape from the building in the event of fire by means of this type of escape. One hundred and thirty children in night attire would, in my opinion, never be able to evacuate the building by means such as are available.³³⁷

They were not replaced until 1954.³³⁸ It took seven years to have the pole fire escape at the Cross Lake, Manitoba, school replaced after an inspector wrote in 1949 that "it is very doubtful if these poles would be of any use in case of emergency."³³⁹ Five years passed between the time an inspector condemned the fire escapes at the Sioux Lookout school in 1952 and the time they were replaced.³⁴⁰

In 1966, seventeen years after the chief of the Engineering and Construction Division, Department of Mines and Resources, called for an end to the use of pole fire escapes, a fire inspector recommended replacement of one on the west side of the Catholic school in Kenora. A 1968 inspection concluded that the pole-type fire escape was insufficient, given the large number of students living in the dormitories. Its replacement was described as an "urgent matter."³⁴¹ It is not clear from the record if the pole was ever replaced. However, the fact that the Dominion Fire Commissioner's office was recommending "changes in the fire escape system" was cited by Indian Affairs official W. McKim as one of the department's reasons for deciding to close the school in 1972.³⁴²

Indian Affairs issued instructions in 1907 that there be a system of fire drills, and in 1927, it required that they be held monthly.³⁴³ Not all schools complied with the policy. In 1937, Inspector G. H. Barry reported on the "great trouble" he was having in getting the principal of the Port Simpson school "to train the children in Fire Drill."³⁴⁴ Problems with inadequate and infrequent fire drills were reported at the Mohawk Institute in 1946 and 1959.³⁴⁵

Continued fire risk in an era of prosperity

The fire risk in residential schools increased dramatically during the Great Depression of the 1930s and the wartime austerity of the 1940s. During those years, little was spent on maintenance, and poorly built schools continued to deteriorate. As previously noted, ten schools burned down between 1940 and 1950. However, school fire safety still did not improve significantly during the period of economic prosperity that followed the end of the Second World War. During this period, Indian Affairs focused its investment on expanding the number of day schools rather than on residential school maintenance and upkeep. When, in 1958, extensive renovations were called for to the main building at the Fort Alexander residential school,

the local Indian Affairs official was instructed "not to spend any more money than is absolutely necessary to reduce the hazards in event of fire," since it was expected the school would close in the near future.³⁴⁶ A 1960 report from the British Columbia Office of the Fire Marshal concluded that the Mission school was overcrowded, and had inadequate fire escapes and limited fire-fighting equipment. School buildings, some of which dated back to 1885, were assessed as being fire hazards.³⁴⁷

Beginning in the 1950s, federal and provincial fire marshals began to pay increasing attention to the residential schools. They judged the schools to be overcrowded fire traps. The standard recommendation was the installation of expensive sprinkler systems.³⁴⁸ In 1950, none of the residential schools had sprinkler systems.³⁴⁹ Indian Affairs officials generally opposed the installation of such systems in existing schools. In many cases, schools were allowed to stay in operation if they installed smoke and heat detectors and reduced enrolment. These compromises were also based on an understanding that the school would be closing in a few years.³⁵⁰

By the 1960s, the fire risk in some schools was so severe that the only solution was to close the school. A 1967 inspection of the Fort Vermilion, Alberta, school made a number of recommendations for improvement. However, the inspector concluded that "due to its age and the combustible nature of the construction materials, even a minor fire could prove disastrous. The building is also structurally unsound and therefore it is the opinion of the writer that serious consideration should be given to discontinuing its use."³⁵¹ The residence closed at the end of the 1967-68 school year.³⁵² In December 1968, the Joussard, Alberta, school required \$125,000 in repairs to bring it up to fire code. The director of education, R. F. Davey, recommended that it be closed at the end of June 1969.³⁵³ The residence closed at the end of the 1968-69 school year.³⁵⁴ In 1969, Indian Affairs believed it could avoid making \$45,000 worth of repairs if it closed the Assumption, Alberta, school at the end of the following school year.³⁵⁵ The residence closed three years later, in 1973.³⁵⁶ In March 1969, Indian Affairs was faced with the prospect of making repairs costing \$80,000 to the Morley, Alberta, school to rectify issues identified by the Dominion Fire Commissioner's office.³⁵⁷ Rather than being repaired, the residence building was closed at the end of June that year.³⁵⁸ School officials did not always support these closings. When Indian Affairs asserted that the Cluny, Alberta, school was being closed in 1968 to address concerns about fire hazards, Principal Adrian Charron said, "It's the same hazard since 1911."³⁵⁹

For those schools that remained in operation, conditions frequently remained dire. From 1970 onwards, when the federal government was attempting to close the system, the government and churches continued to be slow to implement recommended changes. Schools continued to operate in violation of building and fire codes. Fire-safety equipment often was not properly maintained. Tragedy was averted, but, as the following examples indicate, the government continued to run very high risks.

- None of the major fire-safety improvements called for by a March 1971 inspection of the Kamloops, British Columbia, school had been carried out by May 1972.³⁶⁰
- None of the major improvements called for by a 1970 inspection of the Fort Chipewyan, Alberta, school had been carried out by May 1974.³⁶¹
- A fire destroyed a teacher's residence at Fort George, Québec, in 1975; water-pressure problems prevented fire-fighting equipment from being used for half an hour.³⁶²
- Prefabricated classroom trailers installed at the Prince Albert, Saskatchewan, school in 1975 did not comply with the National Building Code.³⁶³
- According to a 1975 inspection, the Fraser Lake, British Columbia, school had inadequate fire escapes, a sprinkler system of questionable effectiveness, and firefighting equipment "in total disarray."³⁶⁴
- In 1977, the Lestock, Saskatchewan, residence was, in the opinion of one inspector, so "drastically overcrowded" that in the case of fire, "we would no doubt have a panic situation which could lead to the loss of life."³⁶⁵
- In 1979, the Cardston, Alberta, residence was judged to have a "lack of adequate exits," a "lack of building fire protection," and an "inadequate fire alarm system." It was also located a "distance from the nearest fire department."³⁶⁶
- In April 1980, the Qu'Appelle, Saskatchewan, senior boys' dormitory, which was estimated to be seventy-five to eighty years old, was in violation of national building and fire codes.³⁶⁷
- When a dormitory at the Portage la Prairie, Manitoba, school caught fire in 1974, it was discovered that the alarm did not sound in the Portage la Prairie fire hall, where it was supposed to ring.³⁶⁸
- An electrical fire at the Mission, British Columbia, residence in 1980 was not detected until smoke drifted up through the building's roof.³⁶⁹
- A 1981 inspection of the Christie student residence, in Tofino, British Columbia, revealed that smoke detectors were not located in all sleeping areas, and many of them were inoperative.³⁷⁰

In matters of fire safety, the government and churches failed on the levels of both policy and implementation. Poorly built and poorly maintained schools constituted serious fire hazards. Defective firefighting equipment exacerbated the risk, and schools were fitted with limited and dangerous fire escapes. Lack of access to safe fire escapes led to high death tolls in both the Beauval and Cross Lake fires.³⁷¹ The harsh discipline and jail-like nature of life in the schools meant that many students tried to run away. To prevent this, many schools deliberately ignored government instructions in relation to fire drills and fire escapes. These were not problems only of the late nineteenth or early twentieth centuries. Well into the second half of the twentieth century, recommendations for improvements went unheeded, and dangerous and forbidden

practices were widespread and entrenched. In the interests of cost containment, the Canadian government placed the lives of students and staff at risk for 130 years.

Discipline

The churches and religious orders that operated Canada's residential schools had strong and interrelated conceptions of order, discipline, obedience, and sin. They believed that human beings were fallen, sinful creatures who had to earn salvation through mastery of their nature by obedience to God.¹⁷ The approach to discipline used in schools was based in scripture: corporal punishment was a biblically authorized way of not only keeping order, but also bringing children to the righteous path.¹⁸ In their use of corporal punishment, church leaders had the support of nineteenth-century educational bureaucrats such as Egerton Ryerson, who believed that opposition to corporal punishment was "contrary to Scripture."¹⁹ Provincial governments provided teachers in public schools with only limited guidance as to how children were to be disciplined. The 1891 Ontario *Education Act* instructed teachers not to exceed measures that would be taken by a "kind, firm, and judicious parent."²⁰ Teachers who went beyond these boundaries could be charged with assault under the *Criminal Code*. Canadian courts had ruled that corporal punishment could not be unreasonable, exceed the severity of the offence, or be carried out with malice.²¹

Corporal punishment did not historically have this same level of acceptability among Aboriginal people. The large number of recorded parental complaints, coupled with the ongoing difficulty in recruiting students, is evidence of occasions where discipline imposed by the schools exceeded what would have been acceptable in either Aboriginal or European communities.²²

Students were punished for not finishing their lessons, for heckling, talking out of turn, throwing rocks at the school fence, immorality, refusing to eat their meals, speaking their own languages, neglecting their chores, and theft (often of food).²³ Harsh discipline often caused students to run away. In 1925, one boy ran away from The Pax, Manitoba, school after being flogged with a whip. His parents returned him to the school, where he was flogged once more and locked up. According to the chief of The Pax Band, P. Constant, the boy ran away one more time. "There are some white men and some Indians who saw the boy in the state he was in after his flogging, in fact, we were afraid that he would probably die some where as those who saw him say that he was nearly out of his mind."²⁴ Parents also believed that a boy at the Williams Lake school committed suicide in 1920 because the school disciplinarian was, in the words of the local Indian agent, "much too free with his cane."²⁵

The failure to provide a national discipline policy

There was a clear need for Indian Affairs to develop a discipline policy for the residential schools it was funding. Such a policy should have given instructions on whether and when corporal punishment could be used, who could administer such punishment, what sort of instruments could be used to administer such punishment, the parts of a student's body that could be struck, and the limits on the number of blows that could be struck. It would also have required that the punishment be witnessed and recorded, and provide guidance, or restrictions, on a range of other known punishments including confinement, food deprivation, hair cutting, ear twisting, and various forms of public humiliation. Because there was no such general policy on these issues, instructions were provided on a case-by-case basis to individual schools.

The first—and only—national discipline policy for residential schools that the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada has been able to locate was issued in 1953. Prior to that date, there are references to a policy, but no apparent copies of such a policy document are to be found.

When new schools were established, Indian Affairs provided principals with general advice on the approach to be taken to discipline. For example, in 1909, Deputy Minister Lawrence Vachonbrought informed the Roman Catholic bishop responsible for residential schools in British Columbia that at the newly established school at Cranbrook, "obedience to rules and good behavior should be enforced, but corporal punishment should only be resorted to in extreme cases. In ordinary cases the penalty might be solitary confinement for such time as the officer may warrant, or deprivation of certain articles of food allowed to other pupils."⁶²

Similar instructions were issued to Roman Catholic assistant principals in 1909, who were advised to avoid "using too rigorous means with regards to the most rebellious." Among the punishments that were sanctioned were having a student stand in the corner, depriving students of recreation periods, and the denial of food (either a portion of a meal or the entire meal).⁶³

In the absence of clear guidelines and directives, individual principals decided for themselves what was and was not appropriate. When principals or other key staff changed, the pattern of discipline could also change, resulting in inconsistency from school to school. Albert Lacombe, the principal of the High River school in what is now Alberta, wrote in the 1985 Indian Affairs annual report, "If we have not some system of coercion to enforce order, and at least a little school discipline, then I assure you it will be very hard to conduct the school with that measure of success which, it was hoped, would attend its establishment."⁶⁴ The missionary Charles Coadie, wrote in 1907 that the "system of discipline is a military one and strictly carried out, no branch of the regulations remaining unpunished, but must say to the honour of our pupils that all, with few exceptions, observe perfectly the daily routine."⁶⁵

In the years in which various Indian Affairs staff either gave instructions that such practices be banned, or stated that it was their intent to develop such a policy. However, as noted earlier, the Commissioner has no formal authority to give any such policy.

Director Reed's instructions of 1885

In 1885, after allegations that corporal discipline was being employed at the Red Cross school in what is now Illinois, Deputy Minister of Indian Affairs Eugene Reed wrote to the assistant Indian Commissioner in Chicago:

Instructions should be given, if not already sent, to the Principals of the various schools, that children are not to be whipped by anyone save the Principals, and even when such a course is necessary, great discretion should be used and they should not be struck on the head, or punished so severely that health, nerve, might suffer. The practice of corporal punishment is considered necessary as a general measure of discipline and should only be resorted to in the very great extreme and as a deterrent example.¹⁰

The fact that Reed, the former Indian Commissioner for the Northern Territory and Manitoba, was unaware of the existence of regulations governing discipline and corporal punishment underlines the lack of official attention that had been paid to this issue.

Reed's instructions were deficient in a number of ways. For example, they:

- a) constituted no direction as to what other types of discipline were to be used
- b) did not define what constituted "great extreme"
- c) did not require a record of punishments to be kept
- d) did not require parents to be notified of punishment
- e) did not require more than one adult to be present
- f) did not stipulate whether it was acceptable for chalking to be resorted to in the administration of corporal punishment
- g) did not provide direction as to whether children were to be punished in front of other students

No limits were placed on the number of blows that could be administered, or on the instrument that was to be used in administering them. Reed's admission that children are to be struck on the head may have given principals protection because no admission blows to any other part of the body.

Despite all these deficiencies, Reed's letter did instruct the assistant Indian Commissioner in Chicago to draft a policy directive on discipline. The Chicago-based Indian Commissioner's office had authority for Indian Affairs in Manitoba and the Northern Territory (which then included what are now Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, and the northern parts of Manitoba, Ontario, and Quebec). Any direction from the assistant Indian

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A policy in force: 1952

On April 14, 1952, Philip Fisher, the Indian Affairs superintendent of education, sent out a "statement of policy regarding school discipline, with particular reference to corporal punishment in Indian schools." The key points read as follows:

Any form of punishment tending to humiliate a pupil is to be avoided. This policy applies also to the use of suspension as a punishment of persons culpable in producing disruptive changes in appearance or dress.

It is generally approved practice for teachers to abstain from physical contact with pupils whether in anger or affection. Children's reports of such contacts have sometimes been so exaggerated as to make the teacher's position untenable.

In any event there must be no corporal punishment of a pupil who is suspected to be suffering from any physical or mental illness which corporal punishment may aggravate.

Before resorting to corporal punishment, the principal or the teacher in charge must be convinced that no other approved form of punishment will have the necessary punitive and corrective effects. The officer must be sure that the pupil was aware of doing wrong. The presence of such a factor as provocation, deliberate repetition or heedlessness of consequences may sometimes justify a more serious view and the use of corporal punishment.

The principal or teacher in charge of a school will decide whether corporal punishment is to be used and will personally administer it in the presence of a witness at a time selected to avoid disrupting the school programme. The witness should be a staff member of the same sex as the pupil who is to be punished; the mother of a residential school should witness the corporal punishment of a girl. Only the strip or slap to the palm of the hand will be used. It will be applied only to the palm of the hand.

A special book reserved for the purpose & used will be kept of every occasion of corporal punishment. This record will show the date, the name of the pupil, a description of the offence, the number of strokes or other facts, and will be signed by the person who used the strip and by the witness.²⁰

The rule relating to changes in appearance should have banned the cropping of hair. The other rules should have ensured that only the principal or the teacher in charge of the school administered corporal punishment. Corporal punishment was to take the form of a stripping on the palm of the hand, delivered in front of a witness of the same sex as the student being stripped. Since humiliation was to be avoided, students were not to be stripped in public. No limits were placed on the number of strokes that could be administered when a student was stripped.

These are the first disciplinary regulations developed by Indian Affairs that the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada is certain were widely distributed within the residential school system. They were, for example, included in the 1958 Indian Affairs field manual.¹⁰²

However, these rules had no legal force. They were not included in the *Regulations with respect to teaching, education, inspection, and discipline for Indian Residential Schools* developed under the *Indian Act* in 1953. Those regulations had little to say about discipline. Principals were to assume the "responsibilities of parents or guardians with respect to the welfare and discipline of the pupils under his charge." Students were to "conform to the rules for the conduct and behaviour of pupils while on or near the school premises or any premises where any activity of the school is taking place."¹⁰³

The 1953 rules also appear to be the last system-wide document that Indian Affairs produced and distributed that placed limits on disciplinary measures to be employed in the schools.

Assessing administration and compliance of disciplinary regulations

Given that there were no national disciplinary regulations prior to 1953, it is not possible to assess or comment on the Working Group on Missing Children and Unmarked Burials' instruction to analyze "Departmental administration of regulations and church compliance with these regulations" prior to 1953. For this reason, this section of the report is divided into two sections: pre- and post-1953.

The pre-1953 period

The degree and severity of punishment administered at Canadian residential schools were regularly viewed by the government's own officials as being excessive. In some cases, the violations were so severe that principals and staff became the subject of criminal and civil court proceedings. In other cases, the government investigated and dissolved the principals and school of excessive behaviour. The absence of any overall regulations, standards, or policies meant that government officials had to draw their own conclusions about whether discipline had been excessive, based on their own instincts and prejudices. Their judgment would also have been affected by the belief that decisions supporting parents' complaints would serve only to weaken the authority of the system. Disciplinary policies were clearly in the hands of the schools, despite the fact that the 1910 contract provided the government with the authority to impose any regulations on the schools that it deemed necessary.

On the following occasions, Indian Affairs officials had drawn attention to what they viewed as being disciplinary excesses at residential schools.

- In 1895, Indian agent D. L. Clink decided not to return a runaway boy to the Red Deer, Alberta, industrial school. He wrote, "I felt if I left the boy he would be abused." Clink wrote that the actions of one teacher "would not be tolerated in a white school for a single day in any part of Canada."¹⁰³
- In 1898, Indian Commissioner David Laird concluded that several children at the Middlechurch school in Manitoba had been "too severely punished." The principal's practice of strapping boys on the back was deemed "too suggestive of the old system of flogging criminals."¹⁰⁴
- Indian Affairs official Martin Benson wrote in 1914 that students at the Mohawk Institute in Brantford, Ontario, were being "disciplined to death."¹⁰⁵
- The principal of the Presbyterian school in Shoal Lake, Ontario, was advised by the local Indian agent to make less use of corporal punishment in 1914.¹⁰⁶
- In 1922, Russell Ferriet, Indian Affairs' superintendent of Indian education, described the disciplinary regime at the Chapleau, Ontario, school as "severe."¹⁰⁷
- In 1922, Indian Affairs instructed Chapleau principal George Prewer, "Give careful and thoughtful attention to the discipline problem of the school and assiduously avoid any corporal punishment that could be considered by outsiders as pitiless."¹⁰⁸
- In 1924, Indian agent J. W. Waddy reported that E. V. Bird, the principal of the Anglican school in The Pas, Manitoba, was "too severe in punishing the children at that place."¹⁰⁹
- In 1925, Indian agent J. W. Waddy reported that he had been told by a local man that a boy who ran away from the school at The Pas had been so badly beaten, he "was welched all-around one leg, black and blue." Waddy's informant said that if the government did not take action, he would take up "the matter with the S.P.C.A. like he would if a dog was abused." He also warned, "One of these times a pupil will starve to death in the bush after running away from school."¹¹⁰
- In 1928, when commenting on the treatment of runaways from the Gordon's school in Saskatchewan, the local Indian agent noted that all but three of the boys had been "punished corporally but whether severely enough to check them remains to be seen."¹¹¹
- In 1928, E. Ruau, the principal of the Roman Catholic school in Cardston, Alberta, informed the father of a runaway boy that he would whip the boy, unless he was instructed not to by the local Indian agent. The agent complained to Ottawa that it was not fair for the principal to burden him with the decision, adding he preferred to "deal with the Indians strictly according to the Act."¹¹²
- In 1928, Edwin Smith, a non-teaching staff member at the Roman Catholic school in Cardston, challenged a student to a fight and then gave him a bloody nose.¹¹³

- In 1934, E. Ruaux, the principal of the Roman Catholic school in Cardston, attacked a boy who did not give him a sufficiently respectful answer when told to take his hands out of his pockets. In the scuffle, he gave the boy a bloody nose.⁴¹³ Ruaux remained in office until February 1937.⁴¹⁴
- In 1936, a police officer who returned a group of runaway boys to the Presbyterian school in Kenora, Ontario, was reported by school staff as saying "that when he was twelve years of age if he had been kept in as one of these boys had been, he would have gone farther away than the boys did."⁴¹⁵
- In 1940, a staff member at the Presbyterian school in Kenora threw a stone at a boy and hit him in the head. He took this action because the boy had refused to obey an instruction to stop throwing stones.⁴¹⁶
- In 1940, a boy at the Coqualeetza Institute, in Chilliwack, British Columbia, was forced to take down his pants to receive a thrashing with a length of harness.⁴¹⁷
- In 1940, a supervisor at the St. Albert, Alberta, school put his hands around the throat of a runaway boy and lifted him into the air.⁴¹⁸ After an investigation, the staff member was dismissed.⁴¹⁹
- In 1945, at the Presbyterian school in Kenora, students who, in the words of the principal, had been involved in a "sex case" or had attempted to "jump trains" were strapped on their buttocks.⁴²⁰

Despite these known excesses in discipline, principals who were viewed as being excessively violent were allowed to remain in office. In 1924, Indian Commissioner W. M. Graham recommended to Deputy Minister Scott that E. V. Bird, the principal of The Pas school, be discharged, since "he is not fit to have charge of Indian children."⁴²¹ Assistant Superintendent General J. D. McLean wrote to T. B. R. Westgate of the Anglican Church about a beating the same principal had given to one boy, saying that he concurred with Graham's recommendation.⁴²² Despite this, Bird was not dismissed. In 1925, Graham once more recommended that Bird be fired after another complaint about a beating that had been administered to a student.⁴²³ The Anglican Church conducted an investigation. However, the investigator did not contact the individuals who had made the initial complaint about the beating.⁴²⁴ Principal Bird continued in office until 1927, three years after Graham had called for his dismissal.⁴²⁵

Principals also protected staff members who were known to be prone to lose their tempers when disciplining students. The disciplinarian at the Blue Quills, Alberta, school, T. H. Tuck, acknowledged in 1933 that he was "very quick-tempered & have at different times got after them perhaps a little too severely."⁴²⁶ He was still at the school in 1935 and still being warned to control his temper.⁴²⁷ Local band officials complained about him in 1939.⁴²⁸ In 1941, Tuck left the Blue Quills school to take a position at the Fraser Lake school in British Columbia.⁴²⁹ Apparently, he ran into trouble there as well, and efforts were made to send him to the Mission, British Columbia, school. The principal of that school turned down the offer.⁴³⁰

Principals were often able to frustrate the efforts of Indian agents who found disciplinary practices in the school to be excessively harsh. When, in 1895, Indian agent D. L. Clink questioned Red Deer principal John Nelson about a report that a boy had been hit on the head with a stick, the principal told him to mind his own business, adding, "We run this school." Nothing came of Clink's recommendation that the staff member be brought up on criminal charges.⁴³¹

When he came upon an allegation that a boy had committed suicide as a result of the harsh discipline at the Williams Lake, British Columbia, school in 1920, Indian agent Arthur O'N. Daunt proceeded very cautiously. His letter to Indian Affairs makes it clear that he did not believe the school's administration would co-operate with the government in any investigation into either the death or the alleged harshness of the disciplinarian. Instead, he suggested that the Indian Affairs doctor pretend to be carrying out a medical examination of all the students. The doctor could then report to Indian Affairs if any of the students were bruised or showed other signs of abuse.⁴³² Indian Affairs officials rejected this proposal and ordered him to investigate.⁴³³ By then, however, many of the students had gone home for their vacation. As a result, Daunt failed to carry out the inquiry into the suicide as instructed.⁴³⁴

In May 1934, Indian agent J. E. Pugh met with local Indian band officials who were angered by the bloody nose that Cardston Roman Catholic principal E. Ruaux had given a pupil. Ruaux's reaction was to ask "what business do they [the chiefs] have in the government of his school?"⁴³⁵ Indian Affairs Deputy Minister Harold McGill advised Pugh that "it would be in the best interests of all parties concerned to allow the matter to drop."⁴³⁶ In other cases, when Indian Affairs officials investigated complaints, they limited themselves to asking questions of staff members, without ever speaking to the students or their parents.⁴³⁷

There was also a strong belief among many government and school officials that physical force was required to intimidate residential school students. A government inspector wrote of the Red Deer school in 1902, "The boys have no respect for authority unless it is based on the personal strength of the particular officer exercising it. Each officer who is physically able punishes and disciplines his boys after his own methods." In his view, the "officer who is not endowed with this physical capability is helpless."⁴³⁸ An inspector of Indian agencies, A. G. Hamilton, wrote in the early 1930s that the only way to control the older boys at the Anglican school in The Pas would be if "a proper boys' supervisor were secured, and he would need to be a real man, it would be a big step towards handling the children. This would also strengthen the authority of the other members, who at present find themselves unable to control the children."⁴³⁹

Even the legal system appeared to be influenced by attitudes supporting the justification of severe corporal discipline. In his 1934 report on a mass whipping of nineteen boys at the Shubenacadie school, Justice L. A. Audette wrote that "punishment must

be measured according to the gravity of the offence and not overlooking the complex intelligence of these boys who have all been brought up in the life of Indians."⁴⁴⁰ Since "all human governments rest in the last resort upon physical paid [sic]," it was well for the students to "realize through experience this ineluctable fact."⁴⁴¹ The thrashing was, in the judge's view, not only a punishment, but also a benefit, an education into the foundations of civilization. Audette argued that the principal and school could not afford to look weak in the eyes of the students. "A weak punishment to these Indian pupils would have had no effect, would have been turned into derision and they would have laughed at it."⁴⁴²

This fear of looking weak is one that recurs throughout the history of residential schools. In assessing whether an overly harsh principal should be removed from the Blue Quills, Alberta, school in 1932, Indian Affairs official Russell Ferrier wrote that since there had been "no recent difficulties," he did not "believe it would be subversive of discipline on the reserve if Father Angin left quietly. The Indians could not feel that they have won any 'Victory,' as they have not recently sent in any formal complaints."⁴⁴³ The principal of the Presbyterian school in Kenora, E. W. Byers, complained bitterly in 1936 when the local Indian agent and provincial police officials raised concerns—in front of parents—about discipline at the school. According to Byers, "Indian children must be dealt with firmly, and if they once conceive the idea that the staff has no authority over them, then the discipline will get out of hand completely."⁴⁴⁴ In this case, the local Indian agent, who had concerns about Byers's behaviour, was instructed: "The principal is in the best position to decide what disciplinary measures are required." The ability of Indian Affairs field staff to monitor school discipline was, once more, effectively undermined by department officials.⁴⁴⁵

The failure to provide policy on discipline, and the failure to act on situations of abuse when that discipline was excessive, had serious implications and lasting consequences.

Because there was no policy, there was no limit on what students could be hit with. It is clear from the record that, in administering corporal punishment, residential school principals did not limit themselves to the use of the kind of strap commonly known in public schools at the time. There are reports of staff using horse whips (often called "quirts") to punish students. Birtle principal George McLaren was using "a small raw hide" in 1892 to punish runaways.⁴⁴⁶ In 1902, the principal of the Williams Lake school said that on approximately three occasions, he had used "a saddle whip or quirt to punish boys."⁴⁴⁷ At the Anglican school on the Peigan Reserve in the early twentieth century, P. H. Gentleman used a quirt on students.⁴⁴⁸ In the 1930s, a quirt was also in use at the Blue Quills school.⁴⁴⁹ In 1934, students at the Shubenacadie school were thrashed on their bare backs with a seven-thonged strap that was made specially by the school carpenter to be used on this occasion.⁴⁵⁰ These punishments were not limited to the early twentieth century. In 1936, Chapleau school principal A. J. Vale sought

to discharge a girl who had refused to drop her "stubborn" ways even after he had subjected her to "severe whipping and various methods of punishments, such as extra work instead of play, being sent to bed early and loss of extra privileges."⁴⁵¹ In 1940, a student was thrashed with a length of harness trace.⁴⁵² Students were also punished by blows from bare hands and fists, metal rods, canes, belts, a shovel, a horseshoe, and even a knotted bootlace.⁴⁵³ In the cases of both the shovel and the horseshoe, school administrators resisted Indian Affairs' requests that the staff members be dismissed. In one case, the staff member was dismissed, but Indian Affairs indicated that there would be no objection if he were rehired at another school.⁴⁵⁴

Because there was no policy, there were no limits on where students could be hit. Students at Shubenacadie and Cluny were whipped on their backs.⁴⁵⁵ Students at Williams Lake and The Pas were strapped on the legs.⁴⁵⁶ One girl at The Pas school was hit in the face with the strap.⁴⁵⁷ According to a staff member, this happened when the girl sought to pull her hand away from a blow.⁴⁵⁸ In 1940, a student at Chilliwack was strapped on bare buttocks.⁴⁵⁹

Because there was no policy, there was no limit on the number of blows or the degree of injury that could be inflicted. There are reports of corporal punishment so severe that it left students with bruises. These include reports from schools in Brantford in 1914, Cluny in 1921, The Pas in 1925, Shubenacadie in 1934, and Brantford in 1937.⁴⁶⁰ A judicial inquiry held into the mass flogging at the Shubenacadie school downplayed the fact that the punishment had left scars on the backs of some students. Justice L. A. Audette wrote that "flesh differs. Some skin or flesh has more or less resistance than others."⁴⁶¹ Cluny principal J. Riou wrote in 1922 that he did not believe strapping fifteen- or sixteen-year-old boys or girls to be "pitiless treatment," even if it left "the boy or the girl marked."⁴⁶²

Because there was no policy, there was no limit on the use of confinement as a punishment. Some schools had rooms specifically set aside to serve as what amounted to solitary confinement jail cells. In a report from the fall of 1892 on the Battleford school, Indian Affairs official Alex McGibbon wrote that a fellow Indian Affairs official had locked a boy in a cell. This was done against the wishes of the school principal.⁴⁶³ The Shingwauk Home in Sault Ste. Marie in 1889 had a "lockup" room to which students were sent as punishment.⁴⁶⁴ For "serious faults," students at the Williams Lake school might be locked in a room for up to twelve days in 1902.⁴⁶⁵ In a 1907 report on the Mohawk Institute, the inspector for Indian agencies, J. G. Ramsden, wrote, "I cannot say that I was favourably impressed with the sight of two prison cells in the boys [sic] playhouse. I was informed, however, that these were for pupils who ran away from the institution, confinement being for a week at a time when pupils returned."⁴⁶⁶ In the 1920s, the principal of the Roman Catholic school at Kenora was reported to have locked students in cupboards, the outhouses, and the basement as punishment. He said he had adopted these practices because the local Indian agent

had recommended that he make less use of corporal punishment.⁴⁶² At the Gordon's Reserve school in the 1930s, students were confined as punishment in the infirmary.⁴⁶³ While they were locked up, students might not be allowed to see their parents if they visited the school.⁴⁶⁴ Into the 1950s, there are reports of students confined to specific punishment rooms.⁴⁶⁵

Confined students often were fed restricted diets. It was reported in 1902 that girls at Williams Lake had been put on bread-and-water diets.⁴⁶⁶ At the Mohawk Institute in 1914, a girl was put on a bread-and-water diet for three days.⁴⁶⁷ Boys suspected of theft were put on bread and water at Shubenacadie in 1934, as were truants at the Gordon's school in 1938.⁴⁶⁸

Because there was no policy, there were no limits on what could be done to students as punishment. It is important to recall that we are talking about students at school, not prisoners in jail. Yet, numerous residential school students were physically restrained. In some cases, their hands were tied behind their backs; they were chained to benches; they were shackled to their beds and chained to each other; and their hands and feet were tied together.⁴⁶⁹ In 1920, the newly appointed principal of the Lytton, British Columbia, school described his predecessor's administration as one of "repression, with such paraphernalia as hand-cuffs, leg-irons, stocks, convicts' haircuts and prison cells."⁴⁷⁰ In 1934, a runaway student at the same school was blindfolded and forced to eat a spoonful of mustard. He was then held face-down in a pail of water.⁴⁷¹

Many of the punishments were also coupled with humiliation. In addition to being strapped, runaways often had their hair cut short or shaved off.⁴⁷² Students often had their ears twisted as punishment.⁴⁷³ In 1939, Carcross, Yukon, principal H. C. Grant informed Indian Affairs that some students had been "laid across the classroom desk in the presence of the whole school, clad only in their night attire, and strapped on a different part of their anatomy than their hands."⁴⁷⁴ In 1952, two former staff members of the Prince Albert, Saskatchewan, school reported that students were being spanked "for the benefit of the entire school."⁴⁷⁵

On occasion, Indian Affairs officials expressed opposition to such punishments. In 1906, Indian Commissioner David Laird instructed the Indian agent responsible for the Onion Lake, Saskatchewan, school that "ear twisting for punishment should be dropped."⁴⁷⁶ Indian Affairs departmental secretary T. R. L. MacInnes advised the Gordon's principal in 1938 that, "while it is doubtful" cutting the girls' hair "constitutes assault in a legal sense at the same time it is felt that you should adopt some other method of enforcing discipline."⁴⁷⁷ These letters are yet further evidence of the fact that there was no system-wide discipline policy to which Indian Affairs and school officials could refer. It also demonstrates the Indian Affairs habit of dealing with problems on a case-by-case basis. Laird could have sent a letter to all the schools over which he, as Indian commissioner, had authority on the Canadian Prairies. MacInnes could have

given stronger direction and given it to all principals, not simply to the principal of a single school in Saskatchewan.

Punishment could take the form of an endurance test. At the Banfield school in 1932, students were made to stand alongside a fence for two hours as punishment. At the Sechelt, British Columbia, school in 1936, the school disciplinarian held extended physical drills, requiring boys to hop on one leg "for longer periods than usual," in an effort to force them to reveal who had stolen a set of the school keys.¹⁰⁷

Right across the country, students who wet their beds were subjected to a range of humiliating punishments, of which one of the most common was being paraded in front of the other students, often draped in their wet bedclothes.¹⁰⁸ In other cases, they were placed in tubs of hot or cold water for extended periods of time.¹⁰⁹

The post-1953 period

The 1953 policy document appears to have had only limited impact. In 1956, the principal of the Presbyterian school in Kenora had twisted a boy's ear in the hall view of his grandfather. The incident led R. F. Davey, the superintendent of education, to ask the principal "to abide by the regulations governing discipline in our schools, a copy of which is attached." The principal responded, "I have not previously seen the regulations which you have enclosed. I will abide by it in the future."¹¹⁰ In 1960, an investigation into allegations of excessive discipline at the Kamisack, Saskatchewan, school revealed that the school principal did not have a copy of the Indian Affairs discipline policy.¹¹¹

In October 1953, the effectiveness of the discipline policy underwent its first test. That month, a father laid a complaint before the local justice of the peace about the treatment his sons had received at the Birch, Manitoba, school. He said that Principal N. W. Busaw had strapped the two boys on the buttocks.¹¹² Indian Affairs official G. H. Marcoux spoke to the parents, to one of the boys, the principal, a police officer, and a doctor named Bjoranson. The parents said the beating had left marks on the boys' genitals, while the doctor and police officer said that the marks were limited to the backs of their legs and buttocks. Marcoux wrote, "Mr. Busaw may have overstepped the mark a little but I believe his story that the boys were running away and he said he had to make an example of them."¹¹³ Acting Superintendent of Education R. F. Davey concluded that neither the "manner of administering the punishment nor the report of the occasion" conformed to the recently released regulations. However, the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada could not locate any record of any disciplinary action ever taken against the principal, who continued in office for almost another twenty years, until at least 1976.¹¹⁴

There are other examples of harsh punishment from this era. A girl from the Canadian school in Saskatchewan was hospitalized in 1931 after being punished. Indian Affairs did not become aware of this until after the principal in charge of the school had resigned and fled the country.¹¹ The parents of a student at the Alton (Quebec) school informed the administration in 1934 that their son had told them he was going to run away if the current boys' master was not replaced. There was said that the master was "too rough for the boys" and hit them with his fists.¹² The master was facing criminal charges at the time for an assault that took place outside of the school and did not punish school pupils or employees.¹³ By the late 1930s, there were reports that students at the L'Esperance, British Columbia, school and students were being regularly sent to the lock by a number of staff members for violating school rules.¹⁴

In some cases, Indian Affairs officials appear to have supported and encouraged the use of harsh punishment. In 1933, an Indian agent recommended that a principal respond to truancy at the Sioux Lookout, Ontario, school with the "heavy whipping of offenders."¹⁵

Harsh physical discipline was not only used for punishment; it was also used as a tool of domination. In 1936, the principal of the Pelly-Yukon school in Yukon who had returned a boy's ear to front of his grandfather acknowledged that the reason he had done it "was partly to let the boy's grandfather see that the boy was in the wrong and also to let the boy know that I do not fear his grandfather."¹⁶

Students also continued to be punished in humiliating and public fashions. In 1933, eleven students at the Alton Bay, British Columbia, school were strapped on their buttocks in front of the assembled staff and students. The Indian agent disapproved, but the principal remained in office.¹⁷ In 1941, the principal of the Pelly-Yukon school in Yukon acknowledged that he had "confined two Indian children in their rooms in their underwear with only bare mattresses in the room and provided a diet of bread and milk only as a means of punishment for their having run away from the school."¹⁸

In some cases, discipline appears to have bordered on the sadistic. In the 1930s, Kamloops, British Columbia, principal Allan Newman advised the following treatment for older boys who got into fights and refused to apologize: "Put them in the ring with gloves and supervise a boxing match until both boys are too tired to carry any more. For a bully, this is good medicine now - let the little fellows with gloves on push him around the ring. The bully will get tired especially if he is made to lie on his back."¹⁹

Shout huts (or shouting sheds or whistles) continued to be given as punishment, particularly in the case of truancy. For example, there are reports of such punishment from Saskatchewan in 1937 and 1941, the Yukon in 1934, and Quebec in 1936.²⁰

Although Indian Affairs investigated some complaints, in many others, Indian Affairs allowed principals to conduct their own investigations into complaints about

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It was not until the 1980s that French researchers systematically began to address these issues and to suggest the institutional changes. Consequently, since 1980, the management of universities has been undergoing significant and continuing developments. In the context of these last 20 years:

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United Church representatives became aware that a second former staff member may have been abusing students at the Edmonton school. The Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada has not located any evidence to indicate that United Church officials forwarded concerns about the individual's activities to the police or Indian Affairs.¹²⁹ Similarly, in 1963, Anglican Church officials decided not to involve the police in a case of abuse by a Gordon's staff member (police had left the school).¹³⁰ When the principal of the Lynton school learned in 1973 that an employee was abusing students, he fired the man but did not report the incident, or his decision to fire the perpetrator, to either the police or Indian Affairs.¹³¹

- **Government failure to report abuse to the police.** When federal government officials concluded that an employee at Convent Hall in Whitehorse, Yukon, was abusing students, he was dismissed. No report was made to the police.¹³²
- **Failure to support police investigations.** In 1938, British Columbia Provincial Police identified a number of cases of abuse at the Kuper Island school. Rather than assist the police in the investigation, Indian Affairs officials and Roman Catholic Church officials chose to protect the school's reputation. As a result, individuals suspected of abuse were fired and told to leave the province. These measures effectively ended the police investigation.¹³³
- **Failure on the part of Indian Affairs field staff to report properly on the prosecution of residential school staff as senior officials.** In 1966, Indian Affairs officials in Ottawa were not able to get detailed reports from their field staff on the conviction of a teacher at the Morley, Alberta, school.¹³⁴
- **Failure to screen effectively when hiring.** In 1936, a man who had been convicted of a sexual assault just months earlier was hired at the Qu'Appelle school in Saskatchewan.¹³⁵ In 1967, a man was able to find work at the Birch, Manitoba, school just months after he had left a residential school and a public school in Alberta under suspicious circumstances.¹³⁶ In 1978, the principal of the Lower Fox school in British Columbia hired a man to work as the school's night watchman, even though he was known to have been recently convicted of "molesting" boys.¹³⁷ While the schools failed to put appropriate screening and monitoring processes in place, the government was reluctant to press them to do it out of respect for the church's need for "flexibility." And, to ensure that such processes were in place would have required more resources than the federal government was then providing.¹³⁸
- **Failure to protect students from abuse by other students.** For example, incidents of sexual and physical abuse of students by other students at Gordon's school continued into the 1970s.¹³⁹
- **Failure to assist victims.** Although, in one case, there is evidence that a group of victims were assessed by a psychologist—who was actually in the community

to assess their abuser—the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada has not been able to locate evidence to demonstrate that the government or the churches provided any organized form of support or information to abused students, their parents, or their communities.⁵²²

- **Failure on the part of police to investigate properly.** When reports of physical abuse at the Roman Catholic school at Kamisa, x were made in the 1960s, the police were satisfied with the dismissal of the employee. Thirty years later, the individual was prosecuted and convicted for the abusive acts committed in the 1960s.⁵²³ Paul Leroux, a supervisor at Grolier Hall, was convicted of a sexual assault in 1979 involving a student at Grolier Hall.⁵²⁴ The Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada has not found any documentation to suggest that an investigation was carried out at that time to determine if Leroux had assaulted any other students at either Grolier Hall or the Beauval, Saskatchewan, school where he had previously worked. It was not until several decades had passed that, in response to the complaints of former students, Leroux's activities at Grolier Hall and Beauval were investigated. He was subsequently convicted of additional assaults at both institutions.⁵²⁵

The potential for the sexual abuse of students was known by government and church officials from the outset of the operation of the residential schools. Laws existed under which perpetrators could be prosecuted. Children living in residential schools should have been protected from abuse. If they were not protected—and tens of thousands were not—then the system failed to provide a standard of care required by any Canadian child-welfare system.⁵²⁶ The government and the churches did not establish policies to either protect students or address abuse when it occurred: the typical response was to place the institutional interests of the schools ahead of the interests of the students.

Truancy

The provisions of the *Indian Act* and the regulations adopted at various times under that Act make clear that from 1894 onwards, the Canadian government had a definition of "truancy," and had established its authority to return truant students to residential schools. Truancy was, in fact, one of the earliest residential school matters on which Indian Affairs had relatively detailed legislation and regulation. The government also adjusted—and tightened—the legislation and the regulations to deal with perceived deficiencies.

The major focus of the regulations and their enforcement was the enrolment and attendance of students. The churches often complained that the regulations regarding attendance were too weak and enforcement was ineffective.⁵²⁷ Even so, the

government had the power to fine and jail parents who did not enrol their children in residential school. Parents were threatened with prosecution and, on some occasions, were prosecuted under the truancy provisions of the *Indian Act*. Indian Affairs officials also sometimes denied food relief to communities and individuals in an effort to force them to send their children to residential school.³⁵⁵ There are numerous examples of large numbers of parents refusing to return their children to school in the autumn. In these cases, local Indian Affairs officials and police officials worked together to force parents to send their children to school.³⁵⁶ On occasion, senior Indian Affairs officials, who favoured a less confrontational approach, cautioned against using police to force parents to send children to school and prosecuting parents who kept their children out of school.³⁵⁷ Despite such cautions, a police presence—and the threat of prosecution—was used for much of the system's history to ensure residential school attendance.³⁵⁸ Indian Affairs also threatened to prosecute people who provided shelter to runaway students.³⁵⁹

The risks that runaways faced

Students who ran away were at risk of injury and death.³⁶⁰ There was one key area in which the government policy on truancy was deficient: the procedures that school staff, Indian Affairs staff, and police force members were to follow when a student ran away from school. The first system-wide policy that the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada was able to find outlining the procedures to be taken when a child ran away from school dates from 1953. That policy, contained in the 1953 regulations in the *Indian Act*, simply stated, "The principal shall take prompt action to effect the return to school of any truant pupil, and shall report promptly to the Superintendent, Indian Agency, every case of truancy."³⁶¹ The nature of the prompt action was undefined. In particular, there was no requirement to contact either the child's parents or the police. It would not be until 1971 that a more encompassing, nationwide policy would be announced.

The scope of the problem

Almost all schools had runaways; at times, the problem became so severe that officials spoke of truancy as reaching "epidemic" levels.

As examples:

- In February 1902, nine boys ran away from the Williams Lake, British Columbia, school.³⁶²
- In 1928, the Indian agent at the Anglican school at The Pas, Manitoba, reported that hardly a day went by without a student running away.³⁶³

- Eight boys and four girls ran away from the Pine Creek, Manitoba, school in 1928.⁵⁶⁴
- Indian agent J. E. Pugh acknowledged in 1928 that truancy at the Anglican school in Cardston, Alberta, "has been bad. In fact, at times one could almost designate it a continual in and out."⁵⁶⁵
- In 1935, ten pupils ran away from the Birtle, Manitoba, school.⁵⁶⁶
- Six children ran away from the Chapleau, Ontario, school during a three-day period in 1937.⁵⁶⁷
- Five boys ran away from the Pine Creek school on the morning of April 22, 1940.⁵⁶⁸
- Six boys, ranging in age from eleven to fourteen, ran away from the Brandon, Manitoba, school on September 29, 1942.⁵⁶⁹ Two more boys ran away on January 9, 1943.⁵⁷⁰
- Five boys ran away from the Lestock, Saskatchewan, school on October 1, 1944.⁵⁷¹
- Between 1941 and 1946, the Royal Canadian Mounted Police prepared at least sixteen separate reports on investigations into students who had run away from the Shubenacadie, Nova Scotia, school.⁵⁷²
- Three boys ran away from the Portage la Prairie, Manitoba, school in a two-month period in 1941.⁵⁷³
- The local Indian agent said in 1942 that "truancy is rife" at the Birtle residential school.⁵⁷⁴
- In the 1942-43 school year, there had been approximately sixty runaways from the Mount Elgin, Ontario, school.⁵⁷⁵
- In the spring of 1945, seventeen boys were truant from the Hobbema, Alberta, school.⁵⁷⁶
- The Alert Bay, British Columbia, school was hit with what the principal termed an "epidemic of truancy" in the fall of 1947.⁵⁷⁷
- On January 23, 1949, twenty-five girls ran away from the Mohawk Institute in Brantford, Ontario.⁵⁷⁸
- In September and October of 1966, fifty-five children were absent without leave from the Presbyterian school in Kenora, Ontario, a combined total of 146 times. Of those fifty-five students, thirty were absent thirty-seven times. The school had an enrolment of 143. The periods of absence ranged from a half-day to a week.⁵⁷⁹

The record undoubtedly understates the problem. Many Indian Affairs officials believed that principals did not provide them with proper notification when a student ran away. Oliver Strapp, the principal of the Mount Elgin school in Muncey, Ontario, neglected to inform Indian Affairs of the school's persistent problem with runaways. It was only through the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) that the local Indian agent, George Down, learned in June 1943 that there had been approximately sixty runaways from Mount Elgin in the previous year.⁵⁸⁰ In 1940, school inspector G. H. Barry suspected that the principal of the Lytton, British Columbia, school was

reporting runaways as being discharged rather than missing. The local Indian agent, who did not get along with the Lytton principal, had told Barry that "at least nine pupils had run away this year, but there were probably more unreported to him."⁵⁸¹ In 1942, Shubenacadie, Nova Scotia, principal J. P. Mackey neglected to inform Indian Affairs that a runaway boy had been located and returned to the school.⁵⁸² When Sam Ross ran away from the Birtle school in the winter of 1959, Principal N. M. Rusaw did not inform either Ross's family or the Indian agent from Ross's home community.⁵⁸³ After a change of administration at the Sioux Lookout school in 1961, the Anglican Church discovered that the previous principal had been underreporting the truancy problem—which was attributed to the poor job that was being done by the school's student supervisor—and the school had been collecting grants for students who were no longer attending.⁵⁸⁴

There are also gaps in the record. For example, the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada could find no records indicating that the principal of the Fort Alexander, Manitoba, school had informed Indian Affairs when three boys were presumed to have drowned after running away in 1928.⁵⁸⁵ The Commission also could find no records to indicate that the principal of the Pine Creek, Manitoba, school had ever informed Indian Affairs when twelve students ran away from that school in 1928.⁵⁸⁶

Failure to search; failure to inform

There are numerous examples of delays in undertaking searches for runaway students, and of notifying Indian Affairs and the police of runaways. The results in several cases were tragic.

- When an afternoon search party brought back eight of the nine boys who had run away from the Williams Lake school, just after lunchtime on February 8, 1902, Principal Henry Boening decided not to continue the search for the ninth boy. He expected that eight-year-old Duncan Sticks would find shelter under a haystack for the night. The following day, a school staff member went to a nearby First Nations settlement "to see if he could get some Indians to go after the boy."⁵⁸⁷ Later that day, a local man found Sticks frozen to death.⁵⁸⁸
- In 1931, the principal of the Anglican school in The Pas waited until Monday evening to inform the Indian agent that a boy had run away the previous Saturday morning. Eventually, the RCMP were alerted and the boy was found, alive, nine days after he had run away. According to the Indian agent, "The school to my knowledge took no steps to find the boy."⁵⁸⁹
- Round Lake, Saskatchewan, principal R. J. Ross waited until January 17, 1935, before mailing a notification to Indian Affairs that three boys had run away from the school four days earlier, on January 13. The school never organized a search:

two of the boys made it to safety; a third boy, fifteen-year-old Percy Ochapowace, froze to death.⁵⁹⁰

- Nine-year-old Allen Patrick, eight-year-olds Andrew Paul and Justa Maurice, and seven-year-old John Jack ran away from the Fraser Lake school in the afternoon of January 2, 1937. It was not until the early afternoon of the following day that a search party was organized. All four boys were found frozen to death.⁵⁹¹
- Eleven-year-old Andrew Gordon ran away from the Gordon's Reserve school on the afternoon of March 11, 1939.⁵⁹² Principal R. W. Frayling never organized a search or informed the family, Indian Affairs, or the police. On March 14, the boy's father, who had been told by a visitor that his son was not in school, organized a search. Later that day, he found his son's frozen body.⁵⁹³
- The RCMP were not informed that five boys had run away from the Pine Creek, Manitoba, school in April 1940 until the afternoon of the day after their escape.⁵⁹⁴
- Late on the evening of April 18, 1941, fourteen-year-old John Kioki, thirteen-year-old Michael Sutherland, and eleven-year-old Michel Matinas slipped out of their dormitory at the Fort Albany, Ontario school. The boys were never seen alive again.⁵⁹⁵ John Kioki's father said he was "not sure sufficient search was made for my son and the other boys."⁵⁹⁶
- The police were not informed that five boys had run away from the Lestock, Saskatchewan, school in October 1944 until three days after they had left the school.⁵⁹⁷
- When Albert Nepinak and other boys ran away from the Pine Creek school in April 1951, the principal sent a number of students out to look for the boys. When they returned without having found them, he concluded the boys had made it to their homes. However, in the morning, he spoke to Albert's father and discovered he had not come home. The father then undertook a search and discovered his son's frozen body.⁵⁹⁸
- When one twelve-year-old and two ten-year-old boys escaped by canoe from the Roman Catholic school at Kenora on November 9, 1954, the Ontario Provincial Police were notified of their disappearance immediately. However, the RCMP were not contacted until they had been gone for nearly two weeks.⁵⁹⁹ It was the RCMP that organized the search that found the boys, who were alive, stranded on an island.⁶⁰⁰
- It was not until November 1956 that the Ontario Provincial Police and Indian Affairs were informed that Tom and Charles Ombash, aged twelve and eleven, respectively, had run away from the Sioux Lookout school on October 5, 1956.⁶⁰¹ The boys were never located.⁶⁰² Although R. F. Davey, the Indian Affairs superintendent of education, found Principal Eric Barrington's behaviour to be "inconceivable," it did not result in any negative consequences for his career.⁶⁰³ He

remained as principal of the school for another five years, until he was appointed principal of the Wabasca, Alberta, school in 1961.⁶⁰⁴

- Two sisters, Beverly and Patricia Marilyn Joseph, aged twelve and fourteen, respectively, left the Kuper Island, British Columbia, school in a small boat, likely on the evening of January 16, 1959. Their disappearance was discovered the following morning, but the police were not contacted until that afternoon, after school officials had conducted a search of the island. Marilyn's body was recovered from the water and her sister was presumed to have drowned.⁶⁰⁵
- Three girls ran away from the Anglican school at Gleichen, Alberta, on the afternoon of March 8, 1962. Since there was no school the next day and the girls were going to be allowed to go to their nearby homes at the end of the school day, the principal made no effort to locate them. The girls visited with a local family and did not try to return to their homes until the evening, when they were overtaken by a blizzard in which two of them died.⁶⁰⁶
- Two twelve-year-old boys, Philip Swain and Roderick Keesick (his last name in some reports is also given as Tayapaywakejick), failed to return to the Roman Catholic residence in Kenora at the end of the school day on November 27, 1970. Residence officials did not contact the Kenora police until 9:35 that evening. The Kenora constable who took the call did not pass information on to the Ontario Provincial Police, because he believed residence staff would do so.⁶⁰⁷ Both boys died trying to reach their home at Grassy Narrows, ninety kilometres from Kenora.⁶⁰⁸

It is also clear that many staff members put considerable effort into the search for runaways. Moose Factory, Ontario, principal Gilbert Thompson gave this description of the search he undertook when two boys ran away from his school in the evening of November 20, 1943.

I began searching for the same shortly afterwards. By 10:00 p.m. I could not locate these boys and knowing that they might have crossed the river, which crossing was precarious in the dark due to the fact parts of the river were not yet frozen, I notified Cpl. W. Kerr of the R.C.M.P. Together we made a further search that night. The following morning I went to Moosonee and discovered that it was possible the lads had slept in the deserted shack of the family of one lad. No one had seen the boys at Moosonee. That night the policeman and I went across to the shack in the hope that the lads would have returned there, but they were not there. The next morning the policeman took his dogs and went down the railroad track following up a lead that someone had seen two people walking on the track, who had later disappeared into the bush when sighting the on-coming man. The boys were well clothed, but not outfitted for severe weather. Before the policeman overtook them they had walked some 24 miles and had reached the

camp of the parents of one of the boys. All returned the following Wed. night by train, including the parents of one of the boys."¹⁰²

Nine years later, J. Eldon Andrews, the principal of the Presbyterian school in Kenora, provided the chief of the Whitesdog Reserve with this description of a January search for three runaway boys: "Mr. Barrington spent the whole of Thursday from 8:45 A.M. until 11:30 P.M. in the bush without food and at great hardship to himself on the trail of these children. I spent all day Thursday trying to trace them by cat, and the hours from 5:30 until 10:30 P.M. in the woods in search of them."¹⁰³

Indian Affairs was prepared to fund only a portion of the cost that schools incurred searching for and returning runaway students. As a result, in some cases, principals concluded it was not worth the cost to attempt to retrieve truant students.¹⁰⁴ As late as 1914, Indian Affairs was prepared to pay only half the cost of returning a runaway student to the school.¹⁰⁵ It appears that the students or their parents were obliged to pay the costs of locating and returning runaways in some instances.¹⁰⁶

Inadequate response to tragedy: The failure to develop policy

It is clear from the above that on numerous occasions, principals failed to undertake searches; carried out inadequate searches; and failed to contact Indian Affairs, police, and family members in a timely fashion. It is also clear that Indian Affairs did not develop national policies to address these failures, thereby helping to perpetuate their recurrence. It also appears that various inquiries held to investigate the student deaths through inquests also failed, to the extent that they did not address these fundamental lacks as contributing causes.

1902 Williams Lake

The coroner who initially opposed holding an investigation into the 1902 death of Duncan Sticks, a runaway from the Williams Lake, British Columbia, school, reportedly said that "he thought the Government would not allow the expenses as he could see nothing to warrant an enquiry."¹⁰⁷ However, a coroner's jury was eventually convened. It recommended that the issue of discipline and food at the school should be addressed by an independent inquiry, but it made no recommendations about the measures that should be taken when students ran away.¹⁰⁸ In the wake of the tragedy, Indian Affairs issued no policy guidelines to the principal of the Williams Lake school, let alone to all principals, as to what steps should be taken when students ran away.

1915 Resour Lake

The physician who investigated the 1915 death of Percy Oshagumagan, who died after running away from the Resour Lake, Saskatchewan, school, concluded that "no inquiry was necessary."¹⁰⁰ Local and national Indian Affairs officials were unhappy with the fact that the principal had not organized a search or informed Indian Affairs or the police. It was thought that if this had been done, the boy would have been found alive.¹⁰¹ Despite these internal clues, the federal government rejected Oshagumagan's father's request for an investigation into the circumstances surrounding his son's death.¹⁰²

Again, the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada has located no policy document or circular that was issued after this tragedy to outline the procedures that should be followed when a student ran away.

1917 Fraser Lake

A coroner's jury examining the circumstance surrounding the deaths of four boys who ran away from the Fraser Lake, British Columbia, school in 1917 concluded that

more definite action by the school authorities might or should have been taken the night upon which the disappearance took place.

Further it is our opinion that more co-operation between the authorities and the parents of the children would in future help to lessen the danger of any repetition of such an incident.¹⁰³

The senior Indian Affairs official in British Columbia, D. M. MacKay, described the principal's behaviour as "incriminable." MacKay, who conducted his own investigation into the matter, concluded that if a search party had been organized when the boys were first reported missing, "the children would not have perished."¹⁰⁴

The Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada has located no policy document or circular that was issued after this tragedy that outlined the procedures that should be followed when a student ran away. Neither did any of the correspondence on the matter make reference to the violation of any pre-existing policy.

1920 Gordon's Reserve

A coroner's jury concluded that there was no negligence surrounding Andrew Gordon's 1920 death due to exposure after he ran away from the Gordon's, Saskatchewan, school. Indian Affairs official Thomas Robertson believed, however, that "there has been negligence with regard to this case, and that the death should

never been accepted" having withheld their dissenting conclusions, he noted the school as being well run and his belief that the principal would ensure that nothing like this episode would ever happen again. "Thus the leaders of the people of the district were very effective, and as time went past would see to it the best interests of students."¹¹ None of the correspondents in the Indian Bulletin that any pre-existing policy had been violated.

The superintendent of Indian and Training for Indian Affairs, E. E. Harg, did send the Canadian principal a letter outlining what was to be done when students returned from the school: "1. The information should be conveyed to the agent and to any police officials that may be available in the community. 2. A search should be conducted at once."¹²

The Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada has focused its policy document on violence to indicate that these instructions were sent to any other school or principal. By sending these simple, direct instructions to only one principal, Harg passed up an opportunity to deliver a general white instruction on all cases that had played that episode in the past, and would continue to do so into the future.¹³

1941 First Allergy

Indian Affairs official Philip Phelan believed that the principal of the First Allergy, Ontario, school had not been prompt enough in informing Indian Affairs and the agent of the recovery of two boys who were presumed to have drowned in 1941. He wrote as a regional Roman Catholic Church official that "any unusual event at a school, especially where the results are fatal, should be immediately brought to the Department's attention."¹⁴ Phelan did not take the opportunity to report all principals or church organizations in this letter. Again, the Indian Affairs approach to this case remained piecemeal, reactive, and incomplete.

It is not that Indian Affairs officials were not capable of dealing openly with these issues in community. Less than a month after the tragic deaths of these teenagers from the First Allergy school, the board did, in fact, issue the first general white instruction on teenagers that the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada has been able to locate. It was not a policy regarding the steps to be taken in the case of teenage deaths; it placed focus on a principal's ability to make use of the agent to search for missing children. In that regard, it actually increased the risk that students who are away might die of exposure or drowning.

surrounding region. In the same way, the cemetery might serve as a place of burial for students who died at school, members of the local community, and the missionaries themselves. For example, the cemetery at the Roman Catholic St. Mary's Mission, near Victoria, British Columbia, was intended originally for priests and nuns from the mission as well as for students from the residential school. These Oblate bishops were buried there along with settlers, their descendants, and residential school students.¹³² When the Hattfield school closed in 1911, Principal E. Matheson reminded Indian Affairs that there was a school cemetery that contained the bodies of seventy to eighty individuals, most of whom were former students. He worried that unless the government took steps to care for the cemetery, it would be overrun by stray cattle.¹³³ Matheson had good reason for wishing to see the cemetery maintained: several of his family members were buried there.¹³⁴ These concerns proved prophetic, since the location of this cemetery is not recorded in the available historical documentation, and neither does it appear in an inventory of Hattfield cemeteries.

Several of the schools were overwhelmed by the influenza pandemic of 1918–19. At least two of the children and all of the staff were stricken with influenza at the Fort St. James, British Columbia, school and surrounding community in 1918. Seventy-eight people, including students, died. Initially, Father Joseph Allard, the school principal, conducted funeral services at the mission cemetery. But, as he wrote in his diary, the "caskets were brought in two or three at a time, but I could not go to the graveyard with all of them. In fact, several bodies were piled up in an empty cabin because there was no grave ready. A large common grave was dug for them."¹³⁵

That same year, influenza killed five Red Deer, Alberta, school students. Four died at the school, and a fifth died while running away. That boy's body was returned to his home community, the Saddle Lake Reserve. According to Principal J. F. Woodsworth, all the students and many of the staff came down with influenza.

Everyone was so sick that it was impossible for us to bury the dead. There was no one here to dig graves in our own school cemetery [sic]. I thought the best thing to do was to have the undertaker from Red Deer take charge of and bury the bodies. This was done, and they now lie buried in Red Deer. The charges for this extra accommodation amount to about \$20.00 a child, but is for the four who died here. In view of the emergency and the totally unexpected nature of the case I shall be glad if the Department will bear part of this expense. I believe the total undertaker bill is \$20.00. I instructed the undertaker to be as careful as possible in his charges, so he gave them a burial as near as possible to that of a pauper. They are buried two in a grave.¹³⁶

Because the burial costs in the Red Deer municipal cemetery were judged to be "unreasonable," Indian Affairs Deputy Minister Duncan Campbell Scott agreed to reimburse the school for the costs.¹³⁷ Although Scott made no reference to an existing policy, the latter documentation that under normal circumstances, the schools were

expected to cover the burial costs of students who died at school. The most cost-effective way of doing that would be burial in a cemetery on school grounds. Indian Affairs would pay for a child's burial only under unusual circumstances, and, if it did pay, it expected the costs to be kept as low as possible. In this, the department conformed to the general practice of the period in the treatment of those who died in institutions. It was not uncommon for hospitals to have cemeteries in which indigent patients were buried, and workhouses for the poor also had cemeteries.¹⁰¹

According to Chapleau, Ontario, student Michael Cachagee, the students had to help dig the graves. It is a memory that has haunted him all his life. In a 2010 media account, he said that because the graves dug in the winter were shallow, in the spring, bears would root about in the cemetery and feed on the student remains.¹⁰²

Indian Affairs was clearly reluctant to send the bodies of children who died at school home for burial. In her memoirs, Eleanor Brass recalled how the body of a boy who hung himself at the Fife Hills, Saskatchewan, school in the early twentieth century was buried on the Peepcockish Reserve, even though his parents lived on the Carlyle Reserve.¹⁰³

Although McLenn's memorandum stated that the bodies of students who died at the schools were to be sent home "when the parents have refused to permit burial at the school," this practice was not always followed. In 1913, two girls, Anna Lahache from Kahnemake and Jennie Robertson from Garden River, drowned while on a picnic expedition at the Spanish, Ontario, school.¹⁰⁴ School officials buried Jennie at the school after being unable to reach her mother within four days.¹⁰⁵ Anna's body was not recovered until a week after the drowning. Anna's mother requested that her body be returned home for burial, but it was decided that it was too badly decomposed and the cost too high.¹⁰⁶ In 1938, Catherine Lacore requested that the body of her son, who was dying of tubercular meningitis at the Spanish school, be sent to her in Cornwall, Ontario, for burial upon his death.¹⁰⁷ The response from Indian Affairs to the school was:

I have to point out ... that it is not the practice of the Department to send bodies of Indians by rail excepting under very exceptional circumstances. Bodies so shipped have to be properly prepared by the undertakers for transshipment under the laws of the province, and the expense of a long journey such as this would be, would entail an expenditure which the Department does not feel warranted in authorizing.¹⁰⁸

The boy's body was buried at Spanish.¹⁰⁹

Not all requests were rejected. Clara Tirya, who grew up in Rampart House near Old Crow in the northwestern Yukon, recalled that

in the early 1920's a girl had died at Carcross Indian Residential School and when they sent the body back, there were many rumours about the children receiving

bad treatment and this scared the parents or gave them an excuse for not sending their children to school. And so for the next 25 years, no children were sent out to the Carcross Indian Residential School.⁶¹⁷

In the 1940s, Indian Affairs was prepared to cover the burial costs of residential school students who died in hospital. It was not, however, prepared to pay for the transportation of the body to the student's home community.⁶¹⁸

The Social Welfare section of the 1958 Indian Affairs field manual provided direction on the burial of "destitute Indians." Burial costs were to be covered by Indian Affairs only when they could not "be met from the estate of the deceased." There was no fixed rate of payment. Instead, the "amount payable by the local municipality for the burial of destitute non-Indians is the maximum generally allowed." Those who died away from their home reserve were to be buried where they died. "Ordinarily the body will be returned to the reserve for burial only when transportation, embalming costs and all other expenses are borne by next of kin. Transportation may be authorized, however, in cases where the cost of burial on the reserve is sufficiently low to make transportation economically advantageous."⁶¹⁹

An example from that year reflects the implications of this policy for families in remote communities, particularly in the Canadian North. In April 1958, John Lucas, a student from the Carcross school in the Yukon Territory, died during surgery at the Charles Cammell Hospital in Edmonton, Alberta.⁶²⁰ Indian Affairs officials estimated that it would have cost \$217.20 to ship the boy's body back to the Yukon. Instead, he was buried in Edmonton at a cost of \$110.⁶²¹

The issue was brought to the attention of Yukon Member of Parliament Erik Nielsen, who questioned the decision to bury the boy in Edmonton. He argued that it would have been cheaper to ship the body home.⁶²² Indian Affairs officials also stated that the boy's father had agreed that he be buried in Edmonton. In an internal memorandum, one official said that he believed the former principal of the school was manufacturing the issue to embarrass Indian Affairs. The official believed that the principal blamed the government for his being "relieved of his position as principal at Carcross."⁶²³

Nielsen disputed the claim that the boy's father had approved the Edmonton burial.

Mr. Lucas was not advised as to the funeral in Edmonton and as a matter of fact had no word about the funeral at all. The Indian people of Mayo are very bitter about this matter and, while Mr. Lucas may not have complained directly to your Department or to the Indian Agent here, he, nevertheless, I can assure you, has complained quite bitterly. I am sure you will appreciate that the Indian people have a slightly different approach to matters such as these than we do, and unless their dear ones are interred in the community in which his close relations abide, and unless they are interred in the Indian fashion and with proper Indian ceremony, the deceased, as far as the Indian people are concerned, is a lost soul. This is quite disturbing to them.⁶²⁴

Indian Affairs officials later acknowledged that the estimated cost of shipping the body to the boy's community had been based on the erroneous belief that the body needed to be sent in a sealed casket. Such a casket was necessary only in the case of death by contagious disease. In reality, the shipping costs would have been \$125, making them comparable with the cost of burial in Edmonton.⁶⁶⁵

The reluctance to pay the cost of sending bodies home continued into the 1960s. Initially, Indian Affairs was unwilling to pay to ship the body of twelve-year-old Charlie Wenjack back to his parents' home community in Ogoki, Ontario. The boy had died from exposure in October 1966 after running away from the Presbyterian school in Kenora. Eventually, the government agreed to pay the transportation costs, which involved both rail and air fees.⁶⁶⁶ Eight years later, when Charles Hunter drowned while attending the Fort Albany, Ontario, school, it was decided, without consultation with his parents, to bury him in Moosonee rather than send his body home to Peawanuck near Hudson Bay. Almost forty years later, in 2011, after significant public efforts made by Joyce, the younger sister who had never got to meet this big brother, Charles Hunter's body was exhumed and returned to Peawanuck for a community burial. The costs were covered by a fund that the *Toronto Star* raised from its readership.⁶⁶⁷

Conclusion

There are four major conclusions to be drawn from the above. First, the federal government never established an adequate set of standards and regulations to guarantee the health and safety of residential school students. This failure occurred despite the fact that the government had the authority to establish those standards. Second, the federal government never adequately enforced the minimal standards and regulations that it did establish. Third, the failure to establish and enforce such regulations was largely a function of the government's determination to keep residential school costs to a minimum. Fourth, the failure to establish and enforce adequate standards, coupled with the failure to adequately fund the schools, resulted in unnecessarily high residential school death rates.

Students were housed in poorly built, poorly heated, poorly maintained, crowded, and often unsanitary facilities. Many of the schools lacked isolation rooms or infirmaries. Many lacked access to trained medical staff. It was not until the late 1950s that the federal government attempted to provide sufficient funding to ensure that student diets were nutritionally adequate. The combination of poor housing, inadequate medical care, and poor diet left the students vulnerable to infections and reduced their ability to overcome them. Indian Affairs' failure to address the tuberculosis crisis in the broader Aboriginal community by improving housing, diets, income, and access to medical treatment, coupled with the failure to screen out infected children prior to

admission to residential schools, guaranteed that students would be exposed to infection. It must be stressed again that the tuberculosis death rate in the general Canadian population declined in the early twentieth century, prior to the development of effective drug treatment. This decline is generally attributed to a variety of factors such as improvements in sanitation, housing, and diet, and the isolation of infectious individuals in sanatoria. Policies that would have had these same positive effects were recommended for residential schools—but were not adopted. As a result, tuberculosis remained a persistent residential school problem and death rates remained elevated until the introduction of drug treatment.

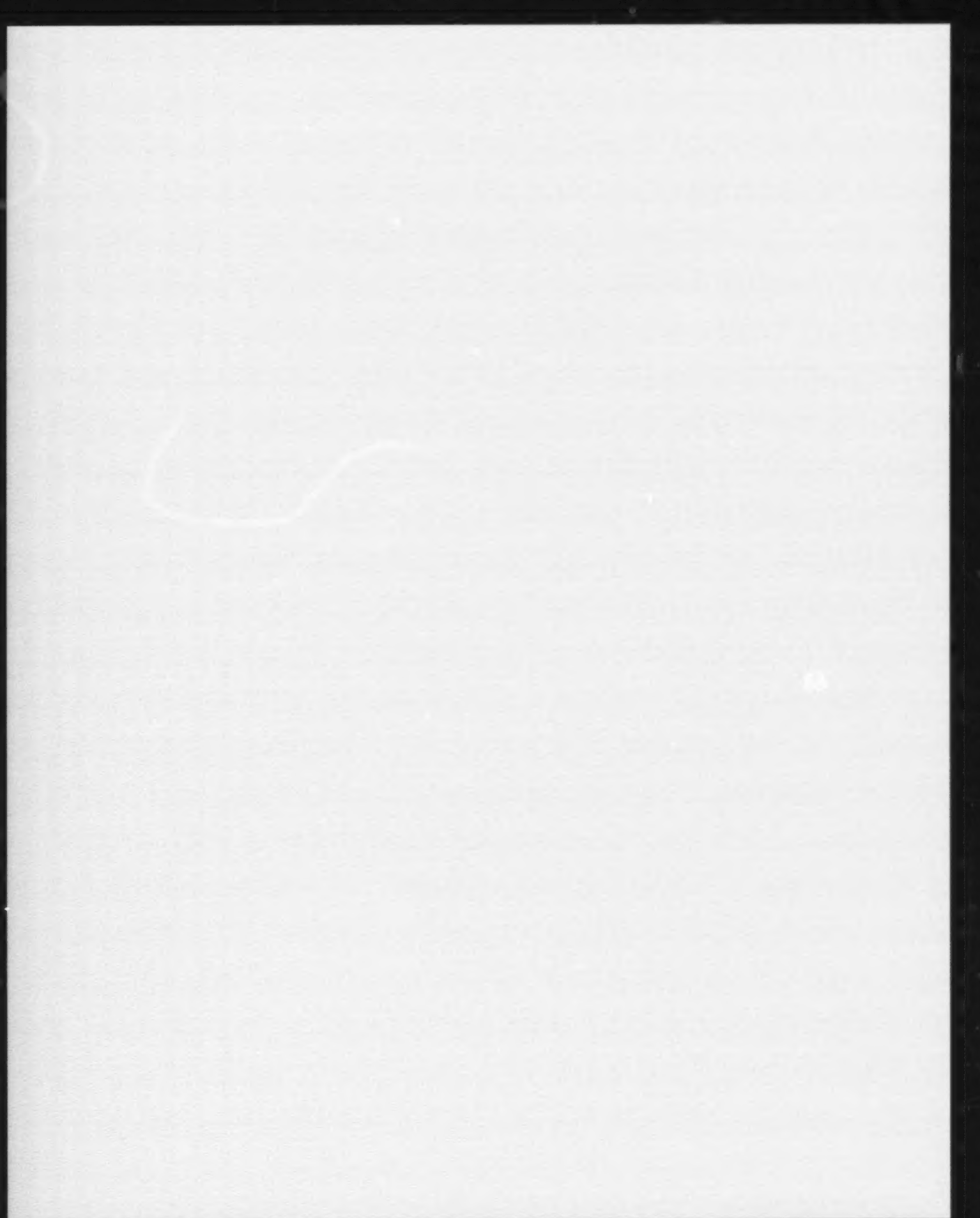
Student safety was further compromised by the failure to adopt and enforce fire-safety standards in the construction and maintenance of buildings, and to construct and maintain safe, accessible fire escapes.

The failure to establish and enforce system-wide discipline policies left students subject to exceptionally harsh and often abusive punishment. This would have increased stress levels and undermined resistance to disease.

The federal government never adopted a national policy on the reporting of the physical and sexual abuse of students. As a result, parental and student complaints were often dismissed without investigation. In other cases, investigations were not carried out in an impartial manner. A common practice was to dismiss a staff member suspected of abusing students rather than to report the incident to the proper authorities. In cases of actual or suspected abuse, parents were not informed and students were not offered any support. Recommendations to put staff screening procedures in place were not adopted. The failure to adequately address physical and sexual abuse in the schools undermined the physical and mental health of countless students.

Harsh discipline and physical and sexual abuse led many students to run away. The failure to establish and enforce national policies and procedures on the measures that principals should take when students ran away from school further contributed to the elevated rates of school deaths.

In short, both the regulatory regime in which the schools operated and the level of compliance with that regime were inadequate to the task of protecting the health and safety of the students. Government, church, and school officials were well aware of these failures and their impact on student health. If the question is, "Who knew what when?" the clear answer is, "Everyone in authority at any point in the system's history was well aware of the health and safety conditions in the schools."



CHAPTER 3

Where are the children buried? Cemeteries and unmarked burials

The Working Group on Missing Children and Unmarked Burials recommended that the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada carry out research into the location of cemeteries and gravesites in which residential students are believed to be buried. As noted above, well over 3,000 children died while at residential school. It is likely that the majority are buried in school or school-related cemeteries.

This research was complicated by a number of factors. In many cases, there is uncertainty as to the exact geographic location of many schools. The documentary record relating to the existence, operation, and fate of residential school cemeteries is also limited. As a result, the Commission was able to base its work on a representative sample only. The technical experts employed by the Commission carried out site visits to establish the current location and condition of twenty burial locations. In addition, the Commission documented the location and condition of school sites and cemeteries using maps and satellite imagery.

Although comparatively few residential school cemeteries are explicitly referred to within the literature, the age and duration of most schools suggest that cemeteries were likely associated with most of them. In a search for those cemeteries, the area surrounding each school was systematically examined, using the available maps and satellite imagery. In some cases, cemeteries were not evident, but possible cemeteries were detected in a surprisingly large number of others. Success was dependent on the resolution and clarity of the available satellite imagery, and whether the ground vegetation was sufficiently sparse to permit detection of ground features indicative of cemeteries. For the most part, the cemeteries that the Commission documented are abandoned, disused, and vulnerable to accidental disturbance. While there have been creative and heartening community commemoration measures undertaken in some locations, there is an overall need for a national strategy for the documentation, maintenance, commemoration, and protection of residential school cemeteries.

Residential schools and cemeteries

Most of the initial Canadian residential schools were part of broader missionary campaigns to convert Aboriginal people to Christianity. A church mission was a mini-society, often including a church, convents, a boarding school, hospital, sawmill, a farm, and a cemetery.¹ Community members would be buried in the mission cemetery, as well as students who died at the school. In other cases, residential schools established their own cemeteries. This was the case, for example, with the Battleford and Regina schools in Saskatchewan, and the Brandon school in Manitoba. Each of these schools established a cemetery, despite being located on the edge of an urban community that would have municipal cemeteries.²

In at least one case, Indian Affairs established a cemetery on a residential school property for the burial of Aboriginal patients who died at a nearby Indian hospital (most of these patients were not residential school students). In 1906, land was set aside on the grounds of the Edmonton residential school cemetery for the interment of those Protestant patients who died at the Charles Cammell Hospital in Edmonton whose families could not afford to have their bodies shipped to their home communities. Boys from the residential school cared for the cemetery grounds and dug graves. At least ninety-eight adults and children were buried in the cemetery.³

Identifying cemetery locations

In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, provincial and municipal governments were either not yet established or in their infancy, and cemetery regulations were non-existent or undeveloped. Given the lack of regulation at the time, it appears that most residential school cemeteries were established informally. It is clear that insufficient consideration was given for the continuing care of graveyards upon closure of the residential schools.

As the statistical analysis at the beginning of this report indicates, some students died at the schools. Other seriously ill children were returned home to die, or were admitted to hospitals or sanatoria where some may have died later. Some of the deceased were returned to their families for burial, but others were buried in cemeteries on school grounds, or in nearby church, reserve, or municipal cemeteries. It is not possible to be certain as to the relative frequency with which these alternatives were employed; or how circumstances varied with church policy, through time, or across emerging and evolving geo-political jurisdictions. However, it is clear that Indian Affairs was opposed, for cost reasons, to shipping the bodies of deceased children to their home communities.

The locations of some of the cemeteries associated with the residential schools are known. The exact location of others is currently unknown, or is incompletely documented in the literature. The location of some cemeteries may even have passed from local memory.

Schools often shifted location. Residential schools often went through a succession of rebuilding episodes as older structures became too small, became unusable, were destroyed by fire, or became redundant and were re-established in a more suitable location. The boarding school that began at Lac La Pêche (in what is now Alberta) in 1863 then moved to Saché Lake in 1888 and then finally to a location near St. Paul, Alberta, in 1911.⁶ When the Anglican school at Onion Lake, Saskatchewan, burned down in 1913, the students were transferred to St. Alban's College, Prince Albert, Saskatchewan.⁷ After the Lac La Pêche school was destroyed by fire in 1917, the students were also transferred to Prince Albert.⁸ There, the students were housed in a former Canadian military basic training complex on the edge of Prince Albert.⁹ By spring of 1940, the boys from St. Alban's College were quartered at the military camp and trucked to classes.¹⁰ In 1954, it was decided to move all the students living at the St. Alban's school into the military camp.¹¹

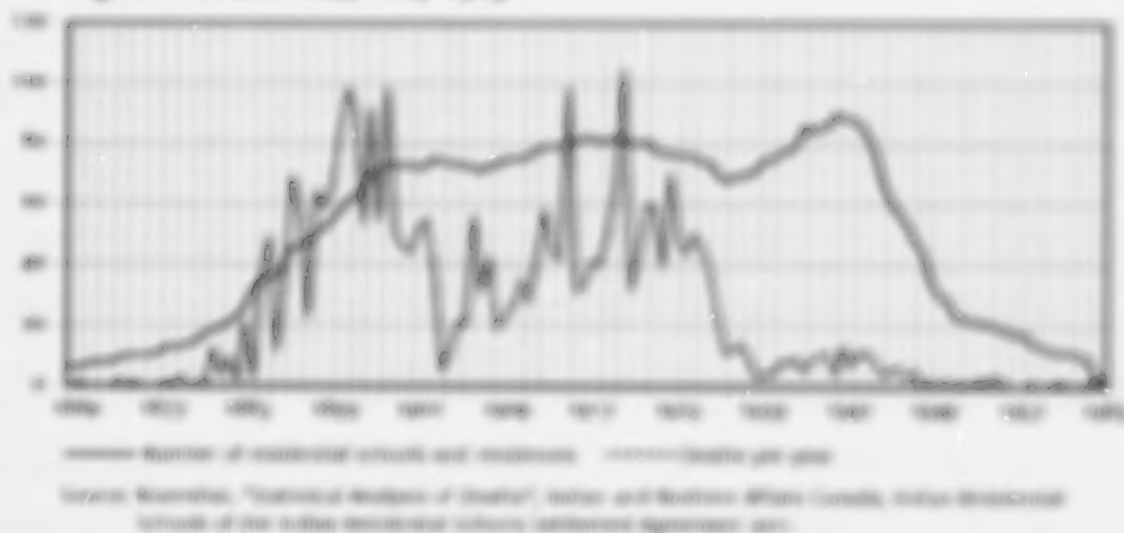
Some burial places are within or near old school grounds, but few seem to have been formally identified and designated by the provincial and territorial agencies responsible for cemetery regulation. Many of these inactive and overgrown cemeteries are not readily identifiable and are not maintained. Without formal documentation, it becomes more difficult to offer protection from contemporary or future land development. Even when considering presently known and maintained cemeteries, some graves may be unrecognized after the decay and disappearance of wooden grave markers and enclosing graveyard fences. This presents a serious challenge for identifying, commemorating, or protecting unmarked graves and undocumented cemeteries.

One strategy for determining which schools were likely to have cemeteries is to determine which schools were in operation during the periods when the death rates were at an elevated level. As the statistical analysis indicates, the residential school death rate was highest in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. This is illustrated by Graph 3, which shows the annual death rates for the combined Named and Unnamed registers.

Graph 12 is based on statistics provided by Aboriginal Affairs and Northern Development Canada, showing the total number of schools listed on the Indian Residential Schools Settlement Agreement that were in operation in any specific year, along with the number of deaths per year (according to the combined Named and Unnamed registers).

Graph 13

Annual figures for number of residential schools in operation and number of residential school deaths (Banned and Unbanned regions combined), 1889-1989



The total number of schools sharply increased after the late 1880s (after the implementation of a formal federal policy on residential schools). Reaching an irregular plateau on the graph until the late 1910s, thereafter they heavily declined during the 1920s and early 1930s, but again climbed sharply to reach a peak of nearly 130 in 1905. After 1915, the number of schools rapidly decreased in all periods shown. The last schools and residences closed in the late 1980s.

As a result, the most useful indicator of whether a school had a cemetery is the date on which it commenced operations. Appendix 1 of this report lists the schools that were included in the Indian Residential Schools Settlement Agreement (IRSSA), along with their opening and closing dates. Appendix 1 also lists residential schools that operated in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries and their opening and closing dates, but which were not included in the IRSSA. As a review of the previous graphs indicates, those schools and branches that opened after 1910 have the lowest probability of student deaths. They are the least likely facilities to have had deaths and school cemeteries. Those facilities that opened prior to 1910 are the most likely to have cemeteries. In other words, the majority of the schools fell into the category that is likely to have had cemeteries.

The fate of the church after closure

The structure of the church within campus – the church, hospital, school hospital, and cemetery – stands as striking features within many contemporary universities. Sometimes an old building has changed its function. Many were replaced with new structures or at least the original ones. In many cases, the old church and its cemetery remain in operation. This is evident at Johns Hopkins University, where the Second Street Episcopal Church and cemetery remain operating within the campus, while the adjacent (the former) established school was closed and moved where the school on the Corner was First United in Baltimore, was demolished and replaced with a big school that the church, cemetery, and cemetery remain. The University moved its northern library was demolished upon school closure. The hospital and cemetery grounds remain in operation. The University, Johns Hopkins, school was demolished into a school and school center adjacent to a golf course.¹⁷ The school cemetery remains intact as land adjacent to the golf course although that it is not being utilized for cemetery remains in use.

In some cases, the school property was taken over by a local First United, and the facility continued to serve community functions. In the case of the University, Johns Hopkins, school the facility was demolished into a school center.¹⁸ In fact, as long as the use is made, hospital was demolished after school closure.¹⁹ The University, Johns Hopkins, school was sold as a private business, demolished, and then moved down.²⁰ The other parts, library, school was taken over by a First United – the school facility that continues to operate as the Johns First United College.²¹ Parts of the school as a demolished into the University facilities was demolished into a school area.²²

Others were established schools were demolished to create a new building, some were established to major centers and became involved in other, moving over. The Second Street school as happened in other is now Johns Hopkins was demolished in 1980 and the land was redeveloped as the Johns Hopkins College High School, with the nearby cemetery completely surrounded by residential development.²³ After initially operating as First William First United, the the University school was moved into the name of First William (now Second Street) school as happened with 1980.²⁴ It was then demolished and replaced with a new building for the University school. It was one of the children who died while attending the school was moved to the Johns University, Providence school was demolished in the University school as happened along the University Avenue Street in 1980. The school was moved to a new adjacent to Second Street in Johns University, where it operated from 1980 to 1985.²⁵ The property is generally used for many educational functions. Two different communities for students and employees between the school and the University. The building was the 4 month parking lot now occupied by Johns Johns College.

philosophical, it is a normative question about the role of business in society and the nature of the business system. It is a question about the nature of the business system.

The role of business in society: a normative question

It is important to note that the question of the role of business in society is a normative question. It is a question about the nature of the business system and the nature of the business system. It is a question about the nature of the business system and the nature of the business system. It is a question about the nature of the business system and the nature of the business system.

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1. **Introduction:** The first paragraph introduces the topic of the research paper, providing a brief overview of the research question and the purpose of the study.

2. **Background:** The second paragraph provides background information on the topic, including relevant literature and previous research findings.

3. **Methodology:** The third paragraph describes the research methodology used in the study, including the research design, data collection methods, and statistical analysis techniques.

4. **Results:** The fourth paragraph presents the results of the study, including the main findings and any statistical significance.

5. **Conclusion:** The fifth paragraph concludes the study, summarizing the main findings and providing a final statement on the research question.

There are a number of reasons why the American people should be interested in the Soviet Union and its people. First, the Soviet Union is a superpower and its actions can affect the lives of all Americans. Second, the Soviet Union is a major source of information and intelligence for the United States. Third, the Soviet Union is a major source of technology and scientific knowledge for the United States. Fourth, the Soviet Union is a major source of cultural and artistic expression for the United States. Fifth, the Soviet Union is a major source of economic and social development for the United States. Sixth, the Soviet Union is a major source of political and social change for the United States. Seventh, the Soviet Union is a major source of environmental and natural resources for the United States. Eighth, the Soviet Union is a major source of human and social progress for the United States. Ninth, the Soviet Union is a major source of peace and stability for the United States. Tenth, the Soviet Union is a major source of hope and optimism for the United States.

[illegible]

traditional Cree protocol.²¹ At the second ceremony, held in 2011, the only remaining grave markers, which had been preserved by the owner of the land on which the cemetery was located, were presented to Elders, who then took them to the Red Deer Museum and Art Gallery.²² The third commemoration event took place in June 2013 on the grounds of Sunnyside United Church in Red Deer. The event included a feast to "Remember the Children of Red Deer Industrial School."²³

Identifying Challenges

The issue of documenting and protecting residential school cemeteries is extremely important, as urban development, infrastructure expansion, and resale or reutilization of old school lands become more common. This is not a new problem. At the Saskatchewan Education Centre at Lestock, accidental disturbance of unmarked graves occurred during the installation of new sewer lines in the early 1990s.²⁴ A recent debate over the future of the Regina school cemetery (1891 to 1910) serves to illustrate the dilemmas facing many jurisdictions when dealing with the cemeteries, particularly those that now lie abandoned. The Regina residential school cemetery was established on the western edge of the school property at 701 Paskia Road. It became privately owned in the 1980s.²⁵ In light of proposed developments in the area, concern was raised about how best to protect the school cemetery.

An unpublished 2011 report prepared by the Regina Planning Department indicates that the cemetery contains the bodies of First Nations and Métis students as well as the children of the school's first principal. A 2012 archaeological survey over the south part of the former cemetery yielded evidence of twenty-two graves. Documents dating to 1921 indicate that the original cemetery fence was destroyed in a prairie fire that might have also destroyed the wooden marker crosses of up to thirty-five or forty graves.²⁶

The planning document identified and evaluated various strategies for protection of the cemetery for the Municipal Heritage Advisory Committee to consider. The first option involved the City of Regina's taking no further action. Since the cemetery is registered under the *Saskatchewan Communities Act*, 1999, the landowner is deemed responsible for ongoing care. The cemetery is also currently registered as an archaeological site.

A second option was for the city to use its authority, under the *Communities Act*, to compel the landowner to maintain the cemetery at a suitable standard. In this case, this was deemed to be akin to the guidelines for "dryland vegetation management" (that is, regular cutting of grass within and around the cemetery). This option would ensure some level of maintenance of the cemetery while minimizing the landowner's financial burden, but would fall short of offering enhanced heritage protection.

A third option explicitly addressed the advisability of differing levels of municipal and provincial designation, commemoration, and protection.

Each of these three options was tempered by complex considerations regarding landowner responsibilities, the cost of site documentation required to facilitate heritage designation, and the potential risk to municipalities of precedent-setting decisions with budget implications. All the options recognized the need for appropriate consultation with First Nations communities from whom the deceased students originated.²⁷ These complex issues will be common to many future discussions about how best to address the maintenance of residential school cemeteries, particularly those that lie abandoned and unmaintained.

Recommendations regarding documentation and protection of residential school cemeteries

Many, if not most, of the several thousand children who died in residential schools are likely to be buried in unmarked and untended graves. Subjected to institutionalized child neglect in life, they have been dishonoured in death. Many Aboriginal people have unanswered questions about what happened to their children or relatives while they were attending residential school. The work that the Commission has commenced in identifying and commemorating those students who died at school and their gravesites needs to be completed.

Collecting, managing, and assessing information about residential school cemeteries can be challenging, given unclear jurisdictional responsibility and concerns about the costs involved. This is evident with the recent debate about appropriate designation of the Regina school cemetery. This work is also complex and sensitive. Former schools might be associated with specific First Nations, but the cemeteries may contain the bodies of children from many communities. They may also contain the bodies of teachers (or their children) who died while working at the institutions. In some cases, the cemeteries remain in operation and receive ongoing care, particularly when they are part of an existing churchyard or are located within a reserve or non-Aboriginal community. But many others lie abandoned and largely forgotten. No one set of recommendations will serve all circumstances. While residential school cemeteries require documentation, commemoration, ongoing care, and protection from disturbance, there is a need for a consultative framework to identify appropriate strategies and then to identify the skills and resources needed to undertake the required work and a set of principles to guide this work.

The documentation, ongoing maintenance, commemoration, and protection from disturbance of residential school cemeteries cross numerous jurisdictions. Aboriginal communities from which students were recruited and where cemeteries are located

have vital interest in this work. The federal government funded and regulated the schools, and a number of major Christian denominations operated them. Regulation of cemeteries, however, rests at the provincial and territorial levels. Environmental impact assessment is also regulated by governments at a variety of levels. The issue is best addressed through the coordination of a national strategy.

Call to action:

- 75) We call upon the federal government to work with the churches and Aboriginal community leaders to inform the families of children who died at residential schools of the child's burial location, and to respond to families' wishes for appropriate commemoration ceremonies and markers, and reburial in home communities where requested.

As infrastructure and resource development accelerates throughout Canada, the risk of damage to relatively undocumented residential school cemeteries increases. Depending upon the jurisdiction, an environmental impact assessment, which includes assessment of heritage sites, is usually required prior to development. This generally involves a review of existing documentation, evaluation of the potential for heritage sites within the development zone, and also often a physical search. Such work is often done in phases, with preliminary review of centralized archives and databases to inform subsequent investigation. Local knowledge about residential school cemeteries might not be readily accessible to non-local planners, resource managers, and impact assessors. It is therefore important that locally collected information is shared with agencies responsible for land use planning, environmental impact assessment, and cemeteries protection and regulation.

Such information-sharing is hindered by limited documentation, unclear jurisdictional responsibility, and uncoordinated consolidation of information. These problems could be addressed through the establishment of a registry of residential school cemeteries that could be available online. At a minimum, such a registry should include the identification, duration, and affiliation of each cemetery; its legal description; current land ownership and condition; and its location coordinates.

There is also a need for information sharing with the families of those who died at the schools. As the historical record indicates, families were not adequately informed of the health condition of their children. There is a need for the federal government to ensure that appropriate measures are undertaken to inform families of the fate of their children and to ensure that the children are commemorated in a way that is acceptable to the families.

Calls to action:

- 74) We call upon the federal government to work with churches, Aboriginal communities, and former residential school students to establish and maintain an online registry of residential school cemeteries, including, where possible, plot maps showing the location of deceased residential school children.
- 75) We call upon the federal government to work with provincial, territorial, and municipal governments, churches, Aboriginal communities, former residential school students, and current landowners to develop and implement strategies and procedures for the ongoing identification, documentation, maintenance, commemoration, and protection of residential school cemeteries or other sites at which residential school children were buried. This is to include the provision of appropriate memorial ceremonies and commemorative markers to honour the deceased children.

The complex and sensitive work of documenting, maintaining, commemorating, and protecting residential school cemeteries must be undertaken according to a set of guiding principles that give priority to community requirements and knowledge. Any physical investigation of the cemeteries must involve close consultation with interested communities, identification of community-driven objectives, suitable methodologies, and attention to spiritual and emotional sensitivities.

The generally sparse written documentation must be combined with locally held knowledge. Often, this information will be unwritten, and held by Survivors, the family of Survivors, staff, or local residents. This locally held information can be used to verify, correct, and amplify archival information. This work might involve local initiatives to physically document cemetery extent and location, and also to identify individual graves within or around the cemetery area. When undertaking physical inspection and documentation of the cemeteries, the most cost-effective strategy involves collection and consolidation of both documentary and locally held knowledge prior to initiating fieldwork. This will improve efficiency of the physical search and aid selection of the most effective field methodologies. It also enables researchers to determine community wishes regarding the most appropriate approaches to site investigation. This includes identifying the protocols regarding prayers and ceremonial observance prior to a site visit.

Long-abandoned cemeteries may yield only fragmentary surface evidence of their existence, such as decaying grave markers, picket fences, offerings, or grave houses. Sometimes, shallow depressions might be the only remaining indication of graves, and the cemetery might be overgrown with grass, weeds, or woody vegetation. Care must be taken to avoid inadvertent destruction of surface evidence when seeking to document, beautify, or commemorate the cemetery area. Obscuring surface

vegetation should not be immediately cleared, since it might also disturb fragile remnants of grave markers, and different vegetation growth might suggest grave locations. Site documentation might require archaeological expertise to undertake preliminary mapping and photo-documentation, air-photo interpretation coupled with topographic mapping, near-surface geophysical survey, and test excavation.³⁸

Call to action:

- 76) We call upon the parties engaged in the work of documenting, maintaining, commemorating, and protecting residential school cemeteries to adopt strategies in accordance with the following principles:
- i. The Aboriginal community most affected shall lead the development of such strategies.
 - ii. Information shall be sought from residential school Survivors and other Knowledge Keepers in the development of such strategies.
 - iii. Aboriginal protocols shall be respected before any potentially invasive technical inspection and investigation of a cemetery site.

Conclusion

The Working Group on Missing Children and Unmarked Burials posed four questions:

- 1) Who and how many IRS (Indian Residential School) students died?
- 2) What did IRS students die from?
- 3) Where are they buried?
- 4) Who went missing?

The Commission focused its resources on answering the first three of these questions.

The Commission has established a National Residential School Student Death Register. On that register, it has identified the names of 2,040 students who died in residential school or shortly after discharge. It has also identified 1,161 reported deaths of unnamed residential school students. As noted, work on the register is far from complete: there are many documents that must be reviewed and further cross-referenced. In addition, statements given by former students to the Commission have yet to be fully analyzed for references to student deaths and further cross-referencing with the documentary evidence.

Tuberculosis was the cause of death in 48.7% of the cases for which there is a reported cause of death (on the Named and Unnamed registers combined.) A child's vulnerability to tuberculosis and ability to recover from the infection was in large measure governed by diet, sanitary conditions, ventilation, quality of clothing, and physical strength. Due to limited government funding, students in most schools were malnourished, quartered in crowded and unsanitary facilities, poorly clothed, and overworked. The fact that the government was not able to impose and maintain a screening mechanism that kept infected students out of the schools meant that the schools amplified an existing tuberculosis crisis in the Aboriginal community.

Students who died at school were rarely sent home unless their parents could afford to pay for transportation. Unless they lived in close proximity to the school, most parents could not afford such costs. As a result, it is likely that most students who died at residential school were buried in either a nearby mission cemetery or a residential school cemetery. Although some of these cemeteries remain in operation, many more have been abandoned after the closure of either the school or the mission. In recent years, in a number of important instances, Aboriginal communities, churches, and former staff have taken steps to rehabilitate cemeteries and commemorate the individuals buried there.

The measures recommended in this report are intended to serve as a framework for a national strategy for the documentation, maintenance, commemoration, and protection of residential school cemeteries. Such a program, carried out in close consultation with the concerned Aboriginal communities, is necessary to properly honour the memory of the children who died in Canada's residential schools.

Appendix 1

Canada's residential schools

The Indian Residential Schools Settlement Agreement (IRSSA) provides the most comprehensive listing of Canadian residential schools for Aboriginal people. At the time of approval, the Settlement Agreement listed 130 residential schools and residences. The Settlement Agreement also outlined a process by which additional schools could be added to the list of approved institutions. At the time of writing, nine institutions had been added to the list.¹

The IRSSA list of approved schools has a number of limits.

- It was developed in the early twenty-first century as part of a process through which individuals were compensated for their experiences at residential schools that they attended. Therefore, the list did not include schools that closed in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.
- The original list did not include the dates of operation for the schools. Due to limitations in the records, there are difficulties in determining opening and closing dates. Some schools, for example, might informally open when a missionary began boarding one or more students in his home. Continuity in the operation of schools could be interrupted. For example, schools that burned down might not reopen for several years. The precise date of closure might be difficult to pinpoint: the Blue Quills school, for example, is still in operation as a post-secondary educational facility.
- There were several anomalies in the list. The Methodist school at Red Deer, Alberta, which closed in 1919, and the Methodist school in Edmonton, which opened in 1924, are listed as one school. Similarly, the Anglican school at The Pas, Manitoba, which closed in 1933, and the Anglican school in Dauphin, Manitoba, which opened in 1957, are listed as one school (in part because both were known as the "McKay school"). There are separate listings for Roman Catholic schools at Fort Pelly and Kamsack, Saskatchewan, although these appear to refer to the same institution.²
- It was not uncommon for schools to be known by a variety of names: one might relate to its geographic name, one might refer to a Christian saint, and another

might refer to the region in which the school was located. The industrial school at Lebrét, for example, was referred to as the "Lebrét school," the "Qu'Appelle school," and the "St. Paul's school"—all at the same time. It later became known as the "Whitetail school." There is also duplication in names: there were three St. Marys, four St. Pauls, and at least eight St. Josephs.

- The question of religious affiliation is not always straightforward. At first, most of the schools were quite clearly the initiatives of Catholic and Protestant missionary organizations. That affiliation formally ended in 1909. However, for a number of years after that, church-appointed principals remained in offices, and the religious denomination that had been previously associated with the school continued to provide pastoral care.

All these issues combine to complicate any attempt to list the schools on the Settlement Agreement with their opening and closing dates, location, and religious affiliation.

Appendix 1.1 presents the schools listed on the Settlement Agreement by province (in alphabetical order). Because of the number of schools with the same name, the schools are listed by location. (When more than one school was located in a single location, there are multiple entries for that location.) Appendix 1.1 also addresses the anomalies that appeared in the Settlement Agreement list: separate listings have been created for schools that were combined on the Settlement Agreement list, such as those at Edmonton and Red Deer. The Kamsack and Fort Pelly Roman Catholic schools have been combined, as have the Roman Catholic schools at Cross Lake, Norway House, Notre Dame, and Jack River, which appear to have been part of a linked administrative structure. Where possible, the opening and closing dates are based on archival documents. Where this was not possible, secondary sources were consulted. In most cases, the dates represent only the opening and closing, and do not reflect periods when the school might have been temporarily closed. The Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada's attempt to be as comprehensive as possible. For this reason, the dates may not correspond to those used in assessing claims under the Common Experience Payment program and the Independent Assessment Process, which employ criteria relating to the degree of federal involvement in the operation of the facility.

Appendix 1.2 lists residential schools that were funded by Indian Affairs in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, but were not included in the Settlement Agreement. The information on these schools comes from the Indian Affairs annual reports, particularly the table of schools published annually.

Appendix 1.1

Residential schools and residences included in the Indian Residential Schools Settlement Agreement

Alberta

Assumption

Our Lady Assumption, Assumption, Hay Lakes

Roman Catholic

Opening: 1951¹

Closing: 1972²

Brocket

Sacred Heart, Brocket

Roman Catholic

Opening: 1907³

Closing: 1962⁴

Brocket

St. Cyril's, Queen Victoria's Jubilee Home, Pigeon

Anglican

Opening: 1900⁵

Closing: 1962⁶

Calgary

Wangan Lake, Calgary, St. Francis Xavier

Roman Catholic

Opening: 1907⁷

Closing: 1962⁸

Cardston

St. Mary's, St. Basil, Immaculate Conception

Roman Catholic

Opening: 1900⁹

Closing: 1960¹⁰

Cardston

St. Paul's, St. Basil

Anglican

Opening: 1901¹¹

Closing: 1972¹²

Chung

Carmichael, St. Joseph's, St. Vincent

Roman Catholic

Opening: 1900¹³

Closing: 1962¹⁴

Manitoba-Wabowagan

Wabowagan (Wabowagan Lake, St. Martin's)

Wabowagan (Roman Catholic)

Roman Catholic

Opening: 1901¹⁵

Closing: 1972¹⁶

Edmonton (St. Albert)

Edmonton (Protestant)

Methodist, later United Church of Canada

Opening: 1900¹⁷

Closing: 1960¹⁸

Fort Chipewyan

Holy Angels, Fort Chipewyan, French

Roman Catholic

Opening: 1970¹⁹

Closing: 1970²⁰

Fort Vermilion

Fort Vermilion, St. Henry's

Roman Catholic

Opening: 1900²¹

Closing: 1960²²

Grainville

Old Sun (Old Sun's)

Anglican

Opening: 1900²³

Closing: 1972²⁴

Gravel

St. Bernard's, Gravel, Lower West Lake

Roman Catholic

Opening: 1900²⁵

Closing: 1962²⁶

High River

St. Joseph's, High River, Catholic

Roman Catholic

Opening: 1900²⁷

Closing: 1962²⁸

Example 1

Write the equation of the line that passes through the points $(-2, 3)$ and $(1, -1)$.

Solution: First, find the slope.

$$m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{-1 - 3}{1 - (-2)} = \frac{-4}{3} = -\frac{4}{3}$$

$$m = -\frac{4}{3}$$

Example 2

Write the equation of the line that passes through the points $(-1, 2)$ and $(2, -3)$.

Solution: First, find the slope.

$$m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{-3 - 2}{2 - (-1)} = \frac{-5}{3} = -\frac{5}{3}$$

$$m = -\frac{5}{3}$$

Example 3

Write the equation of the line that passes through the points $(-3, 4)$ and $(1, -2)$.

Solution: First, find the slope.

$$m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{-2 - 4}{1 - (-3)} = \frac{-6}{4} = -\frac{3}{2}$$

$$m = -\frac{3}{2}$$

$$m = -\frac{3}{2}$$

$$m = -\frac{3}{2}$$

Example 4

Write the equation of the line that passes through the points $(-2, 1)$ and $(3, -4)$.

Solution: First, find the slope.

$$m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{-4 - 1}{3 - (-2)} = \frac{-5}{5} = -1$$

$$m = -1$$

$$m = -1$$

Example 5

Write the equation of the line that passes through the points $(-1, 3)$ and $(2, -2)$.

Solution: First, find the slope.

$$m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{-2 - 3}{2 - (-1)} = \frac{-5}{3} = -\frac{5}{3}$$

$$m = -\frac{5}{3}$$

Example 6

Write the equation of the line that passes through the points $(-3, 2)$ and $(1, -1)$.

Solution: First, find the slope.

$$m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{-1 - 2}{1 - (-3)} = \frac{-3}{4} = -\frac{3}{4}$$

$$m = -\frac{3}{4}$$

Example 7

Write the equation of the line that passes through the points $(-2, 4)$ and $(3, -1)$.

Solution: First, find the slope.

$$m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{-1 - 4}{3 - (-2)} = \frac{-5}{5} = -1$$

$$m = -1$$

$$m = -1$$

Example 8

Write the equation of the line that passes through the points $(-1, 2)$ and $(2, -3)$.

Solution: First, find the slope.

$$m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{-3 - 2}{2 - (-1)} = \frac{-5}{3} = -\frac{5}{3}$$

$$m = -\frac{5}{3}$$

Example 9

Write the equation of the line that passes through the points $(-2, 3)$ and $(1, -1)$.

Solution: First, find the slope.

$$m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{-1 - 3}{1 - (-2)} = \frac{-4}{3} = -\frac{4}{3}$$

$$m = -\frac{4}{3}$$

Example 10

Write the equation of the line that passes through the points $(-1, 2)$ and $(2, -3)$.

Solution: First, find the slope.

$$m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{-3 - 2}{2 - (-1)} = \frac{-5}{3} = -\frac{5}{3}$$

$$m = -\frac{5}{3}$$

Example 11

Write the equation of the line that passes through the points $(-3, 4)$ and $(1, -2)$.

Solution: First, find the slope.

$$m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{-2 - 4}{1 - (-3)} = \frac{-6}{4} = -\frac{3}{2}$$

$$m = -\frac{3}{2}$$

$$m = -\frac{3}{2}$$

Example 12

Write the equation of the line that passes through the points $(-2, 1)$ and $(3, -4)$.

Solution: First, find the slope.

$$m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{-4 - 1}{3 - (-2)} = \frac{-5}{5} = -1$$

$$m = -1$$

$$m = -1$$

$$m = -1$$

Example 13

Write the equation of the line that passes through the points $(-1, 3)$ and $(2, -2)$.

Solution: First, find the slope.

$$m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{-2 - 3}{2 - (-1)} = \frac{-5}{3} = -\frac{5}{3}$$

$$m = -\frac{5}{3}$$

$$m = -\frac{5}{3}$$

Example 14

Write the equation of the line that passes through the points $(-3, 2)$ and $(1, -1)$.

Solution: First, find the slope.

$$m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{-1 - 2}{1 - (-3)} = \frac{-3}{4} = -\frac{3}{4}$$

$$m = -\frac{3}{4}$$

$$m = -\frac{3}{4}$$

Example 15

Write the equation of the line that passes through the points $(-2, 4)$ and $(3, -1)$.

Solution: First, find the slope.

$$m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{-1 - 4}{3 - (-2)} = \frac{-5}{5} = -1$$

$$m = -1$$

$$m = -1$$

Example 16

Write the equation of the line that passes through the points $(-1, 2)$ and $(2, -3)$.

Solution: First, find the slope.

$$m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{-3 - 2}{2 - (-1)} = \frac{-5}{3} = -\frac{5}{3}$$

$$m = -\frac{5}{3}$$

$$m = -\frac{5}{3}$$

St. Ignace

St. Ignace
Roman Catholic
Opening: 1982^{2nd}
Closing: 1983^{2nd}

St. Ignace Academy (St. Ignace)

St. Ignace Academy (St. Ignace), St. Ignace, Alaska
English
Opening: 1982^{2nd}
Closing: 1983^{2nd}

St. Ignace (St. Ignace/Alaska)

St. Ignace, Alaska, St. Ignace
St. Ignace, Alaska, St. Ignace
Opening: 1982^{2nd}
Closing: 1983^{2nd}

St. Ignace

St. Ignace (St. Ignace) School
St. Ignace, Alaska, St. Ignace
Opening: 1982^{2nd}
Closing: 1983^{2nd}

St. Ignace, Alaska

St. Ignace, Alaska
English
Opening: 1982^{2nd}
Closing: 1983^{2nd}

St. Ignace, Alaska

St. Ignace, Alaska
English
Opening: 1982^{2nd}
Closing: 1983^{2nd}

St. Ignace, Alaska

St. Ignace, Alaska, St. Ignace
English
Opening: 1982^{2nd}
Closing: 1983^{2nd}

St. Ignace

St. Ignace (St. Ignace) School, St. Ignace, Alaska, St. Ignace
Roman Catholic
Opening: 1982^{2nd}
Closing: 1983^{2nd}

St. Ignace

St. Ignace (St. Ignace) School, St. Ignace, Alaska, St. Ignace
Roman Catholic
Opening: 1982^{2nd}
Closing: 1983^{2nd}

St. Ignace, Alaska

St. Ignace, Alaska, St. Ignace
St. Ignace, Alaska, St. Ignace
Opening: 1982^{2nd}
Closing: 1983^{2nd}

St. Ignace

St. Ignace

St. Ignace, Alaska, St. Ignace, Alaska, St. Ignace
St. Ignace, Alaska, St. Ignace, Alaska

Roman Catholic
Opening: 1982^{2nd}
Closing: 1983^{2nd}

St. Ignace

St. Ignace, Alaska, St. Ignace
English
Opening: 1982^{2nd}
Closing: 1983^{2nd}

St. Ignace

St. Ignace, Alaska, St. Ignace, Alaska, St. Ignace
St. Ignace, Alaska, St. Ignace, Alaska
Opening: 1982^{2nd}
Closing: 1983^{2nd}

St. Ignace

St. Ignace, Alaska, St. Ignace
St. Ignace, Alaska, St. Ignace
Opening: 1982^{2nd}
Closing: 1983^{2nd}

St. Ignace

St. Ignace, Alaska, St. Ignace, Alaska, St. Ignace
St. Ignace, Alaska, St. Ignace, Alaska
Opening: 1982^{2nd}
Closing: 1983^{2nd}

Kangivualijuaq/Fort George

Federal Hostel at George River
Non-denominational
Opening: 1960²⁰⁰
Closing: 1960²⁰⁰

Kangivualik

Federal Hostel at Payne Bay, Bellin
Non-denominational
Opening: 1960²⁰⁰
Closing: 1962²⁰⁰

Kanijjuarupik/Whapmagoondul

Federal Hostel at Great Whale River, Poste-
de-la-Bahine, Kanijjuarupik
Non-denominational
Opening: 1960²⁰⁰
Closing: 1970²⁰⁰

La Tuque

La Tuque
Anglican
Opening: 1965²⁰⁰
Closing: 1970²⁰⁰

Mistassini

Mistassini Hostels
Non-denominational
Opening: 1971²⁰⁰
Closing: 1970²⁰⁰

Pointe Bleue

Pointe Bleue
Roman Catholic
Opening: 1960²⁰⁰
Closing: 1971²⁰⁰

Sept-Îles

Sept-Îles, Seven Islands, Notre Dame,
Millenium
Roman Catholic
Opening: 1952²⁰⁰
Closing: 1971²⁰⁰

Saskatchewan

Belcarres

File Hills
Presbyterian, later United Church
Opening: 1889²⁰⁰
Closing: 1967²⁰⁰

Battleford

Battleford
Anglican
Opening: 1883²⁰⁰
Closing: 1914²⁰⁰

Beaurval

Beaurval, Lac la Plonge, Be-à-la-Croix
Roman Catholic
Opening: 1860²⁰⁰
Closing: 1995²⁰⁰

Delmas

Thunderchild, Delmas, St. Henri
Roman Catholic
Opening: 1901²⁰⁰
Closing: 1940²⁰⁰

Duck Lake

St. Michael's, Duck Lake
Roman Catholic
Opening: 1894²⁰⁰
Closing: 1996²⁰⁰

Gordon's Reserve, Punnichy

Gordon's, Punnichy
Anglican
Opening: 1880²⁰⁰
Closing: 1996²⁰⁰

Grayson

Marieval, Comensess, Crooked Lake
Roman Catholic
Opening: 1890²⁰⁰
Closing: 1997²⁰⁰

Kamsack

Cote Improved Federal Day School
United Church
Opening: 1920²⁰⁰
Closing: 1940²⁰⁰

Kamsack

Crowstons
Presbyterian
Opening: 1889²⁰⁰
Closing: 1915²⁰⁰

Kamsack/Fort Pelly

Kamsack, St. Phillips
Roman Catholic
Opening: 1920²⁰⁰
Closing: 1969²⁰⁰

Lac La Ronge

All Saints School, Lac La Ronge
Anglican

Opening: 1906²²⁸

Closing: 1947²⁸⁸

Lebret/Qu'Appelle

Lebret, Qu'Appelle, St. Paul's, Whitecliff
Roman Catholic

Opening: 1884²⁶¹

Closing: 1938²⁸²

Muscowequan

Lestock, Muscowequan, Muskwewkwan,
Touchwood

Roman Catholic

Opening: 1889²⁶³

Closing: 1997²⁸⁴

Onion Lake

St. Barnabas, Onion Lake

Anglican

Opening: 1893²⁶⁵

Closing: 1943²⁸⁶

Onion Lake

St. Anthony's, Onion Lake, Sacred Heart
Roman Catholic

Opening: 1892²⁶⁷

Closing: 1974²⁸⁸

Prince Albert

Prince Albert, St. Alban's, All Saints, St.
Barnabas, Lac La Ronge

Anglican

Opening: 1951²⁸⁸

Closing: 1997²⁷⁹

Prince Albert

Saint Alban's

Anglican

Opening: 1944²⁷¹

Closing: 1951²⁷²

Regina

Regina

Presbyterian

Opening: 1891²⁷³

Closing: 1910²⁷⁴

Round Lake

Round Lake

Presbyterian, later United Church

Opening: 1884²⁷⁵

Closing: 1950²⁷⁸

Sturgeon Landing

Sturgeon Landing

Roman Catholic

Opening: 1927²⁷⁷

Closing: 1952²⁷⁹

Yukon**Carcross**

Carcross IRS (Chooulta)

Anglican

Opening: 1903²⁷⁹

Closing: 1969²⁸⁰

Dawson City

St. Paul's Hostel

Anglican

Opening: 1920²⁸¹

Closing: 1953²⁸²

Shingle Point

Shingle Point

Anglican

Opening: 1929²⁸³

Closing: 1936²⁸⁴

Whitehorse

Coudert Hall

Roman Catholic

Opening: 1960²⁸⁵

Closing: 1971²⁸⁶

Whitehorse

Whitehorse Baptist Mission (Baptist Indian
School)

Baptist

Opening: 1947²⁸⁷

Closing: 1959²⁸⁸

Whitehorse

Yukon Hall

Non-denominational/Protestant

Opening: 1960²⁸⁹

Closing: 1985²⁹⁰

Appendix 1.2

Residential schools identified in Indian Affairs
annual reports that were not included in the Indian
Residential Schools Settlement Agreement.

Alberta

Calgary

St. Dunstan
Anglican
Opening: 1896
Closing: 1907

Morley

McDougall Orphanage
Methodist
Opening: 1886
Closing: 1908

Stony Plains

Stony Plains
Presbyterian
Opening: 1892
Closing: 1894

Vermilion Lake

Irene Training Institute at Vermilion Lake
Anglican
Opening: 1885
Closing: 1894

British Columbia

Fort St. James

Fort St. James (Stuart Lake)
Roman Catholic
Opening: 1917
Closing: 1922

Metlakatla

Metlakatla
Anglican
Opening: 1872
Closing: 1908

Yale

All Hallows School
Anglican
Opening: 1884
Closing: 1918

Manitoba

Middlechurch

St. Paul's, Middlechurch (Rupert's Land)
Anglican
Opening: 1890
Closing: 1906

St. Boniface

St. Boniface
Roman Catholic
Opening: 1890
Closing: 1905

Water Hen

Water Hen
Roman Catholic
Opening: 1890
Closing: 1900

Ontario

Wikwemikong

Wikwemikong (Manitoulin Island)
Roman Catholic
Opening: 1868
Closing: 1911

Saskatchewan

Muscowpetung

Muscowpetung Agency Boarding School
Presbyterian
Opening: 1888
Closing: 1894

Muskeg Lake

Roman Catholic
Opening: 1892
Closing: 1892

Prince Albert

Emmanuel College

Anglican

Opening: 1879

Closing: 1909

Standing Buffalo

Standing Buffalo

Presbyterian

Opening: 1889

Closing: 1893

Northwest Territories

Fort Resolution

Fort Resolution

Anglican

Opening: 1891

Closing: 1892

Appendix 2

Schools destroyed by fire: 1867 to 1997

This appendix of school fires (and the appendices following) represent the number of fires that the TRC identified in the course of preparing this report. Further research will likely identify additional fires. Religious affiliation of the school is identified when there are two schools in a single location.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>1) Île-à-la-Crosse, North-West Territories (now Saskatchewan) (1867)¹</p> <p>2) Shingwauk Home, Garden River, Ontario (1873)²</p> <p>3) Wikwemikong, Manitoulin Island, Ontario, boys' school and girls' school (1885)³</p> <p>4) Coqualeetza Institute, Chilliwack, British Columbia (1892)⁴</p> <p>5) Roman Catholic school at Onion Lake, North-West Territories (now Saskatchewan) (1894)⁵</p> <p>6) Fort William, Ontario, orphanage (1894)⁶</p> <p>7) Elkhorn, Manitoba (1895)⁷</p> <p>8) Mohawk Institute, Brantford, Ontario (1903)⁸</p> <p>9) Anglican school at Wabasca, North-West Territories (now Alberta) (1903)⁹</p> <p>10) Qu'Appelle, North-West Territories (now Saskatchewan) (1904)¹⁰</p> <p>11) Saint-Paul-des-Métis, Alberta (1905). One student died in this fire.¹¹</p> <p>12) Kitamaat, British Columbia, girls' home (1906)¹²</p> | <p>13) Rupert's Land school, Middlechurch, Manitoba (1906)¹³</p> <p>14) Wikwemikong girls' school, Manitoulin Island, Ontario (1911)¹⁴</p> <p>15) Norway House, Manitoba (1913)¹⁵</p> <p>16) Fort Vermilion, Alberta (1914)¹⁶</p> <p>17) Alberni, British Columbia (1917)¹⁷</p> <p>18) Ahousaht, British Columbia (1917)¹⁸</p> <p>19) Sechelt, British Columbia (1917)¹⁹</p> <p>20) Île-à-la-Crosse, Saskatchewan (1920)²⁰</p> <p>21) Lac La Ronge, Saskatchewan (1920)²¹</p> <p>22) Crosby Girls' Home, Port Simpson, British Columbia (1921)²²</p> <p>23) Joussard, Alberta (1923)²³</p> <p>24) Kamloops, British Columbia (1925)²⁴</p> <p>25) Île-à-la-Crosse, Saskatchewan (1925)²⁵</p> <p>26) Beauval, Saskatchewan (1927).²⁶ Nineteen students and one staff person died in this fire.²⁷</p> <p>27) Gleichen, Alberta (1928)²⁸</p> <p>28) Roman Catholic school at Onion Lake, Saskatchewan (1928)²⁹</p> |
|--|---|

- 29) Gordon's Reserve, Saskatchewan (1929)³⁰
- 30) Cross Lake, Manitoba (1930). Twelve students and one staff person died in this fire.³¹
- 31) Qu'Appelle, Saskatchewan (1932)³²
- 32) Fort Vermilion, Alberta (1932)³³
- 33) Anglican school at The Pas, Manitoba (1933)³⁴
- 34) Alberni, British Columbia (1937)³⁵
- 35) Carcross, Yukon Territory (1939)³⁶
- 36) Fort Albany, Ontario (1939)³⁷
- 37) Carcross, Yukon Territory (1940)³⁸
- 38) Ahousaht, British Columbia (1940)³⁹
- 39) Alberni, British Columbia (1941)⁴⁰
- 40) File Hills, Saskatchewan (1942)⁴¹
- 41) Fort George, Québec (the Anglican school) (1943)⁴²
- 42) Onion Lake, Saskatchewan (the Anglican school) (1943)⁴³
- 43) Wabasca, Alberta (1945)⁴⁴
- 44) Norway House, Manitoba (1946)⁴⁵
- 45) Lac La Ronge, Saskatchewan (1947)⁴⁶
- 46) Delmas, Saskatchewan (Thunderchild) (1948)⁴⁷
- 47) Fort Simpson, Northwest Territories (1950)⁴⁸
- 48) Sturgeon Landing, Saskatchewan (1952)⁴⁹
- 49) McIntosh, Ontario (1965)⁵⁰
- 50) Cambridge Bay, Northwest Territories (1973)⁵¹
- 51) Cambridge Bay, Northwest Territories (1974)⁵²
- 52) Fort George, Québec (1975) (federal teachers' residence)⁵³
- 53) Fort Smith, Northwest Territories (1980)⁵⁴

Appendix 3

Outbuildings destroyed by fire: 1867 to 1997

Religious affiliation of the school is identified when there are two schools in a single location.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>1) Mount Elgin, Muncey, Ontario, playhouse (1889)¹</p> <p>2) Battleford, Saskatchewan, carpenter's shop (1894)²</p> <p>3) Elkhorn, Manitoba, girls' dormitory (1895)³</p> <p>4) Ohl Sun's, T'sun Tina, North-West Territories (now Alberta), stable (1896)⁴</p> <p>5) Mission, British Columbia, laundry building (1896)⁵</p> <p>6) Metlakatla, British Columbia, girls' dormitory, laundry, and the school workshops (1901)⁶</p> <p>7) Mohawk Institute, Brantford, Ontario, barns (1903)⁷</p> <p>8) Mohawk Institute, Brantford, Ontario, temporary boys' dormitory (1903)⁸</p> <p>9) Birle, Manitoba, stable (1903)⁹</p> <p>10) Coqualeetna Institute, Chilliwack, British Columbia, several outbuildings (1906)¹⁰</p> <p>11) Hay River, Northwest Territories, henhouse (1907)¹¹</p> <p>12) Mount Elgin, Muncey, Ontario, boys' playhouse (1907)¹²</p> <p>13) Duck Lake, Saskatchewan, pump house (1913)¹³</p> | <p>14) Mount Elgin, Muncey, Ontario, barns (1913)¹⁴</p> <p>15) Glenora, Alberta, laundry building (1921)¹⁵</p> <p>16) Round Lake, Saskatchewan, classrooms (1923)¹⁶</p> <p>17) Anglican school on the Peigan Reserve, Brooks, Alberta, principal's house (1925)¹⁷</p> <p>18) Chapleau, Ontario, former school building (1926)¹⁸</p> <p>19) Duck Lake, Saskatchewan, former school building (1926)¹⁹</p> <p>20) Olus Quilla, Alberta, stable (1926)²⁰</p> <p>21) Spanish, Ontario, boys' school, chicken coop (1930)²¹</p> <p>22) Lestock, Saskatchewan, laundry and garage (1931).²² The school engineer was injured in the fire and the government declined to pay his medical bills, saying they were a church responsibility.²³</p> <p>23) Shingle Point, Yukon Territory, principal's residence (1934)²⁴</p> <p>24) Anglican school at Onion Lake, Saskatchewan, principal's residence (1934)²⁵</p> <p>25) Birle, Manitoba, poultry house (1934)²⁶</p> |
|--|---|

- 263 Elk Hills, Saskatchewan, poultry house (1903)?
- 272 Fraser Lake, British Columbia, pig-pen (1903)?
- 280 Fort Resolution, Northwest Territories, power plant (1906)?
Although there were no facilities, two people were badly burned by the fire.⁸
- 289 Roman Catholic school at Fort George, Quebec, laundry (1900)?
- 300 Roman Catholic school at Kenora, Ontario, wall sculpture (1900)?
- 311 Anglican school at Otonabee, Saskatchewan, pump house (1900)?
- 312 Roman Catholic school at Kenora, Ontario, private residence (1900)?
- 332 Fraser Lake, British Columbia, poultry house (1900)?
- 340 Fraser Lake, British Columbia, poultry house (second fire in one year) (1900)?
- 352 Cranbrook, British Columbia, several outbuildings (1901)?
- 363 Fraser Lake, British Columbia, poultry house (1902)?
- 372 Alert Bay, British Columbia, pump house (1903)?
- 380 Bowker (St. Cyprian's), Alberta, house and cattle barn (1900)?
- 385 Sandy Bay, Manitoba, garage partially destroyed (1900)?
- 400 Linton K., Saskatchewan, slaughter house (1900)?
- 411 Round Lake, Saskatchewan, barn, the blue kumuk shop, and three granaries (1900)?
- 412 Round Lake, Saskatchewan, barn (1900)?
- 433 Presbyterian school at Kenora, Ontario, barn (1902)?
- 444 Brandon, Ontario, Methodist Institute, two barns (1903)?
- 451 Ames, Quebec, cow barn (1900)?
- 462 Mount Leinster, Ontario, school building house (1903)?
- 475 Fraser Lake, British Columbia, pump house (1900)?
- 482 Fort Simpson, Northwest Territories, Roman Catholic Mission, barn (1900)?
- 490 /Blue Quail's, Alberta, barn (1900)?
- 500 Prince Albert, Saskatchewan, skating rink change shack (1903)?
- 511 Williams Lake, British Columbia, engineer's shack (1903)?

Appendix 4

Additional reported fires that did not destroy buildings: 1987 to 1997

Religious affiliation of the school is identified where there are two schools in a single location.

1. Southland, Southern Baptist (1987)
2. Wilsonville, Methodist (school, church in gift school) (1988)
3. Mangrove, Roman Catholic, St. Mary's (1988)
4. Tugboat school on the Wood River, North West, Protestant (now Catholic) (1988)
5. Eugene, Catholic, Central (1988)
6. Medford, Catholic, St. Joseph's (1988)
7. Red Bluff, North West, Protestant (now Catholic, private) (1988)
8. Medford, Methodist, Protestant (1988)
9. Eugene, Catholic, St. Joseph's (1988)
10. Medford, Catholic, St. Joseph's (1988)
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- [illegible]



Notes

Executive summary

1. Motus, *My Life in a Residential School*, n.p.
2. Motus, *From Tom's School Days*, 66–67.
3. Chubbuck, "Indian School Days," 21–22.
4. Brass, *I Walk in Two Worlds*, 26.
5. Coey, "I Will Face No God," 8–9.
6. "Two Or as Many Crooks," *Neptune Telegraph*, 13 November 1962. [00007561]
7. TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG:10, volume 6200, file 577-1, part 1, G. Chubbuck to (Unclear Scott), 21 September 1927. [000100074] Louis Medicine Action to Indian Affairs, 22 September 1927. [000100075]
8. TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG:10, volume 6200, file 577-1, part 1, L. L. Fuller to A. MacNanigan, 4 March 1930. [C1D-000923-0000] TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG:10, volume 6200, file 577-1, part 1, William Gordon to Assistant Deputy and Secretary, Indian Affairs, 10 March 1930. [C1D-000924] TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG:10, volume 6200, file 577-1, part 1, L. L. Fuller to A. MacNanigan, 4 March 1930. [C1D-000923-0000] TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG:10, volume 6200, file 577-1, part 1, William Gordon to Assistant Deputy and Secretary, Indian Affairs, 10 March 1930. [C1D-000924]
9. TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG:10, volume 6200, file 577-1, part 1, "Statement of Alphon Motus," 22 June 1992. [F1A-000106-0011]
10. TRC, NHA, National Capital Regional Service Centre - LAC - Ottawa, file 896/3-3-3, volume 1, "Provincial Police Report," G. A. McManis, 19 December 1956. [F1K-001205-0001]
11. Canada, Canada's Missing, Case Reference: 200600539, [https://secure.rcmp.gc.ca/missing-disappear/case-dossier/pf/casr-200600539.html](https://secure RCMP.gc.ca/missing-disappear/case-dossier/pf/casr-200600539.html) (accessed 16 September 2013).
12. Woodrow, "History of Buffalo Residential School," 208.
13. Van Dyken et al., *Missionaries Among Indians*, 362. For closing date of the High River school, see: TRC, NHA, Provincial Archives of Alberta, PAA 71.220 B92 3666, W. M. Graham to Principal, Terminus Roman Catholic Boarding School, 28 October 1922. [000100043]
14. Canada, House of Commons Debates, 39th Parliament, 1st session, volume 141, number 139 (24 April 2007), 1439–1450.
15. Canada, House of Commons Debates, 39th Parliament, 1st session, volume 141, number 139 (24 April 2007), 1450.

16. Letter from Justice Murray Sinclair to Minister Chuck Strahl, 15 September 2009; Canadian Council of Archives, "Documenting Truth and Reconciliation," by Sharon Larade, 27 June 2007, <http://www.cclarcouncilarchives.ca/whnew2.html#67> (accessed 10 December 2014).
17. The Working Group on Missing Children and Unmarked Burials, *Missing Children & Unmarked Burials*.
18. Letter from Justice Murray Sinclair to Minister Chuck Strahl, 15 September 2009.
19. Letter from Justice Murray Sinclair to Minister Chuck Strahl, 18 January 2010.
20. For an example of reporting only the number of deaths, see: Canada, *Annual Report of the Department of Indian Affairs, 1893*, 88.
21. Canada, *Annual Report of the Department of Indian Affairs, 1893*, 91-97.
22. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6016, file 1-1-23, part 1, A. F. MacKenzie to Indian Agents, Principals of Indian Residential Schools, 17 April 1935. [SBR-001147-0000]
23. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6016, file 1-1-23, part 1, Indian Affairs Memorandum, 17 April 1935. [SBR-001147-0001]
24. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6016, file 1-1-23, part 1, A. F. MacKenzie to Indian Agents, Principals of Indian Residential Schools, 17 April 1935. [SBR-001147-0000] For an example of the form, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6016, file 1-1-23, part 1, Indian Affairs Memorandum, 17 April 1935. [SBR-001147-0001]
25. See, for example: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6315, file 655-23, part 1, P. Phelan to S. Lovell, 19 January 1937; [GUY-000094] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6314, file 655-10, part 1, Samuel Lovell to the Secretary, Indian Affairs, 25 January 1937; [GLFV-000096] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6315, file 655-23, part 1, S. Lovell to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 7 November 1938. [GUY-000102-0000]
26. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 4037, file 317021, Peter H. Bryce to Frank Pedley, 4 June 1907. [CJC-000059-0002] For examples, see: Canada, *Annual Report of the Department of Indian Affairs, 1893*, 107; TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, FA 10-1, volume 1346, Microfilm reel C-13916, Cowichan Agency - Incoming Correspondence re Kuper Island Industrial School, 1891-1907, NAC, Ottawa, G. Donckele to W. R. Robertson, 25 October 1900; [KLP-022107] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6453, file 884-5, part 3, 1930-1931, Kootenay Agency - Kootenay Residential School - Building Maintenance - Supplies - Accounts (Reports), FA 10-17, C. C. Perry to W. E. Ditchburn, 12 June 1930. [EGN-000470]
27. For examples, see: TRC, NRA, Anglican Church of Canada, General Synod Archives, Anglican Church of Canada, GS-75-103, B17, "Minutes of meeting of Indian and Eskimo Commission M.S.C.C. Held on Tuesday, January 11th, 1927," 11; [AAC-083001] St. Boniface Historical Society, Archives Deschatelets, L 541 M27L 266, Brachet to père provincial, 20 October 1928; "Missing Birle Girl Is Not Yet Found," *Winnipeg Free Press*, 28 March 1930; "Find Body of Indian Girl, Long Missing," *Winnipeg Free Press*, 17 April 1930.
28. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6302, file 650-23, part 2, Inspector, Commanding Prince Albert Sub-Division to The Officer in Charge, RCMP, Regina, Saskatchewan, 10 September 1942. [BVL-000822]
29. For an example of a provincial government's supporting Métis students in a residential school, see: TRC, NRA, Archdiocese of Grouard-McLennan, 02008, W. E. Frame to Henri Routhier, 2 May 1946. [GMA-000200-0002]
30. Sachowski, "Preliminary Report on the Investigation," 7-8.

31. TRC, LACAR, Library and Archives Canada, Ottawa, Department of Health fonds, Medical Services Branch sous-fonds, Medical Services Branch Central Registry File series, Administrative Records from Blocks 800 to 849 sub-series, finding aid 29-143, Perm. volume 2622, file number 800-4-9, file volume 1, file name "Records Retirement," *Indian and Northern Health Services Administrative Circular 57-66*, Destruction and Retention of Documents, P. E. Moore, 7 August 1957. [46a-c000301-d0008-001]
32. *Fontaine v. Canada (Attorney General)*, 2013 ONSC 684, 70.

Statistical analysis

1. Rosenthal, "Statistical Analysis of Deaths." The statistical analysis did not include deaths on the Register of Deaths that Require Further Investigation.
2. Wexelman, Eden, and Rose, "Survey of New York Resident Physicians"; Smith Sehdev and Hutchins, "Problems with Proper Completion."
3. Thompson, "Mechanisms of Fatal Pulmonary Hemorrhage."
4. For Duncan Sticks, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6436, file 878-1, part 1, Statement of Reverend Henry Boening, 3 March 1902; [IRC-047093] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6436, file 878-1, part 1, Statement of Joseph Fahey, 3 March 1903; [IRC-047092] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6436, file 878-1, part 1, Statement of Antonio Boitano, 1 March 1902. [IRC-047086] For William Cardinal, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 3921, file 116818-1B, J. F. Woodsworth to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 25 November 1918. [EDM-000956] For unnamed boy from The Pas, Manitoba, school, see: TRC, NRA, Anglican Church of Canada, General Synod Archives, Anglican Church of Canada, GS-75-103, B17, "Minutes of meeting of Indian and Eskimo Commission, M.S.C.C., Held on Tuesday, January 11th, 1927," 11. [AAC-083001] For three unnamed boys from the Fort Alexander, Manitoba, school, see: St. Boniface Historical Society, Archives Deschatelets, L 541 M27L 266, Brachet to père provincial, 20 October 1928. For Agnes Ben, see: "Find Body of Indian Girl, Long Missing," *Winnipeg Free Press*, 17 April 1930. For Percy Ochapowace, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6332, file 661-1, part 2, Royal Canadian Mounted Police Report, "Re: Percy Ochapowace - Death of, Ochapowace Indian Reserve, Saskatchewan," H. S. Casswell, 19 January 1935; [RLS-000365-0003] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6332, file 661-1, part 2, J. P. B. Ostrander to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 19 January 1935. [RLS-000365-0001] For Allen Patrick, Andrew Paul, Justa Maurice, and John Jack, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6446, file 881-23, part 1, R. H. Moore to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 6 January 1937. [LEJ-004083-0000] For Andrew Gordon, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 9151, file 312-11 ACE, "Royal Mounted Police Report, Re Andrew Gordon (Juvenile), Deceased," 16 March 1939. [GDC-009280-0001] For John Kioki, Michael Sutherland, and Michael Matinas, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6186, file 460-23, part 1, Paul Langlois to Constable Dexter, 14 June 1941. [FTA-000105-0001] For Leonard Major, Ambrose Alexander, and Alec Francis, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada - Ottawa, file 882-2, part 8, Kamloops Agency - Kamloops Residential School - Quarterly Returns, 1947-1952, FA 10-17, volume 6447, Microfilm reel C-8770, Library and Archives Canada - Ottawa, Indian Residential School Quarterly Return for Kamloops Indian Residential School, 30 September 1947, pages 8, 9, 10 of 20-page portable document

- file; [KAM-002274] TRC, ASAGR, RCMP-564517, Royal Canadian Mounted Police, E-Div NIRS task force Final Report, M. W. Pacholuk, "Final Report of the Native Indian Residential School Task Force, Project E-NIRS," Royal Canadian Mounted Police, n.d., 49. [AGCA-564517] For Albert Nepinak, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6272, file 582-23, part 1, Royal Canadian Mounted Police Report, 9 April 1951. [PCR-000190] For Tom and Charles Ombash, see: TRC, NRA, National Capital Regional Service Centre - LAC - Ottawa, file 494/3-3-3, volume 1, "Provincial Police Report," G. A. McMonagle, 19 December 1956. [PLK-001205-0001] For Beverly and Patricia Joseph, see: TRC, NRA, INAC - Resolution Sector - IRS Historical Files Collection - Ottawa, file 961/25-2, volume 15, Admissions and Discharges - Kuper Island Residence, Cowichan Agency, B.C., 01/08/1958-02/07/1966 (Ctrl #34-15), IRSRC - Historical Files, J. V. Boys to Indian Commissioner for B.C., 29 January 1959. [KUP-200601] For Mabel Crane Bear and Belinda Raw Eater, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada - Edmonton, 772/25-1, volume 1, 04/60-06/70, N. Goater to A. H. Murray, 10 March 1962. [OLD-007287-0005] For Alfred Whitehawk, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada - Edmonton, RG10, Acc. E1996-97/415, box 36, file 25-2-662, 1964-1966, E. Turenne to K. Kerr, 6 June 1965. [SPR-006307] For Charlie Wenjack, see: TRC, NRA, The Presbyterian Church in Canada Archives, Toronto, On., Acc. 1988-7004, box 17, file 4, "Inquest Hears Tragic Tale of Runaway Boy," *Kenora Miner and News*, 18 November 1966; Coroner's Statement Upon Issuing His Warrant for Holding An Inquest in the Case of Charles Wenjack, R. Glenn Davidson, 4 November 1966; Report of Post-Mortem Examination, A-258, Charles Wenjack, 23 October 1966, Dr. Peter Pan; [CJC-007909] Adams, "Lonely Death of Charlie Wenjack," 30-44. For Joseph Commanda, see: TRC, NRA, INAC - Resolution Sector - IRS Historical Files Collection - Ottawa, file 451/25-2-004, volume 2, "Report on the Death of Joseph Commanda," H. B. Rodine, 6 September 1968. [TAY-001114-0001] For Philip Swain and Roderick Keesick, see: TRC, NRA, INAC, file 487/18-2, volume 1, "2 Boys Died from Exposure," *Kenora Miner and News*, 18 December 1970; [KNR-003158-0002] P. J. Hare to Indian Affairs, 7 December 1970. [KNR-003168] For Jack Elanik and Dennis Dick, see: TRC, NRA, Anglican Church of Canada, Diocese of the Arctic, General Synod Archives, file 110-09, Stringer Hall, Accession M96-7, series 2:1, Notice of missing boys, 1972; [AGS-000341] TRC, NRA, Government of Northwest Territories Archives Confidential, Hostels, 1971-1974, Archival box 8-24, Archival Acc. G1995-004, Leonard Holman to J. Coady, 14 July 1972. [SHU-000486]
5. See, for example: Jones, *Genocide*, 118-119; Milloy, *A National Crime*, 91-92; The Truth and Reconciliation Commission, *They Came for the Children*, 29.
 6. Churchill, *Kill the Indian*, 37-38.
 7. University of Ottawa, The Society, the Individual and Medicine, "Definitions of Common Mortality Rates," http://www.med.uottawa.ca/sim/data/Mortality_Defns_e.htm (accessed 7 April 2015).
 8. Canada, *Annual Report of the Department of Indian Affairs*, 1893, 91-97.
 9. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 3964, file 149874, Martin Benson to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 24 March 1902. [RIS-000351]
 10. Bryce, *Report on the Indian Schools*, 18.
 11. Indian Affairs annual reports, School report tables, 1888 to 1908. The annual enrolments for these schools was: 1888, 12; 1889, 78; 1890, 98; 1891, 118; 1892, 161; 1893, 196; 1894, 249; 1895, 357; 1896, 377; 1897, 435; 1898, 468; 1899, 491; 1900, 483; 1901, 508; 1902, 544; 1903, 526; 1904, 528; 1905, 523; 1906, 557; 1907, 536.
 12. Bryce, *Story of a National Crime*, 4.

13. Bryce, *Report on the Indian Schools*, 18-19.
14. Canada, *Annual Report of the Department of Indian Affairs*, 1907, 2:52-57.
15. Scott, "Indian Affairs," 615.
16. Milloy, *National Crime*, 92; Churchill, *Kill the Indian*, 37.
17. The TRC has identified the following Old Sun's students who died in the following school years. 1893-94: Charlie Big Lake; 1894-95: James Crowchief; 1895-96: Mike Calf Robe, George Weazle Robe, Ellis Scraping High, and Mabel Wood; 1896-97: John Harrington Bone Rib Medicine, Louie Bears Direction, and Gertie Red Old Man; 1897-98: Mary Appikoki; 1899-1900: Alic Run Rabbit; 1900-01: Nora Many Tail Feathers, Fanny Raw Eater, Edith Turn Robes Over; 1901-02: Fred Bone Rib Medicine; 1902-03: Peter Big Road, Charlie Many Times Going, Minnie Reddish Gun, Susie Ann Little Axe; 1903-04: Jessie Many Times Going In; 1904-05: Susie Eva Many Good, Agnes Black Boy, Martha Wolf Ear; 1906-07: Billy Bear Chief; 1908-09: Anna Big Plume, Mary Lefthand; 1909-10: Ada Keg. LAC, RG10, volume 3966, file 150000-14, Status of Pupils Present and Discharged - Old Sun's Boarding School, 13 May 1909.
18. Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 3957, file 140754-1, P. H. Bryce to F. Pedley, 5 November 1909.

Operational policies and custodial care

1. *An Act further to amend "The Indian Act, 1880,"* Statutes of Canada 1884, chapter 27, section 10, amending Statutes of Canada 1880, chapter 28, section 74, reproduced in Venne, *Indian Acts*, 97.
2. *An Act respecting Indians*, Statutes of Canada 1894, chapter 32, section 11, new sections added to Revised Statutes of Canada 1886, chapter 43, reproduced in Venne, *Indian Acts*, 164.
3. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6032, file 150-40A, part 1, "Regulations Relating to the Education of Indian Children," Ottawa: Government Printing Bureau, 1894. [AGA-001516-0000]
4. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6032, file 150-40A, part 1, "Regulations Relating to the Education of Indian Children," Ottawa: Government Printing Bureau, 1894. [AGA-001516-0000]
5. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6032, file 150-40A, part 1, John J. McGee, "At The Government House At Ottawa, Monday, 1st Day of April, 1895." [AGA-001516-0001]
6. Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 2552, file 112220, Hayter Reed to Assistant Indian Commissioner, 20 December 1894.
7. See, for example: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6255, file 576-1, part 1, Deputy Superintendent Indian Affairs to E. McColl, 8 March 1895; [BRS-000175] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6305, file 652-5, part 1, R. S. McKenzie to The Indian Commissioner, Regina, 30 October 1895. [SMD-001170-0000]
8. See, for example: Canada, *Annual Report of the Department of Indian Affairs*, 1897, 161; Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 3940, file 121698-13, Extract from a Report of the Committee of the Honourable Privy Council, Approved by His Excellency on the 20th September 1897; Canada, *Annual Report of the Department of Indian Affairs*, 1898, 152.
9. TRC, NRA, "Regulations Relating to the Education of Indian Children," Ottawa: Government Printing Bureau, 1908; [AEMR-010652] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10,

- volume 6032, file 150-40A, part 1, Acting Deputy Minister [Justice?] to Deputy Superintendent General Indian Affairs, 24 June 1908. [AEMR-177176]
10. *An Act respecting Indians*, Statutes of Canada 1919-1920, chapter 50, section 1, amending Revised Statutes of Canada 1906, chapter 81, section 10, reproduced in Venne, *Indian Acts*, 178-179.
 11. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6032, file 150-40A, part 1, Headquarters - Compulsory Attendance of Pupils - Indian Schools, 1904-1933, Microfilm reel C-8149, FA 10-17, Russell T. Ferrier to Mary Gilbert, 20 October 1926. [AEMR-255333]
 12. Canada, *Annual Report of the Department of Indian Affairs*, 1931, 12.
 13. *An Act respecting Indians*, Statutes of Canada 1932-33, chapter 42, section 1, amending Revised Statutes of Canada 1927, chapter 98, section 10, reproduced in Venne, *Indian Acts*, 248.
 14. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6032, file 150-40A, part 1, Appointment of Truant Officers, D. C. Scott, 7 February 1927. [MRS-000045]
 15. *An Act respecting Indians*, Statutes of Canada 1951, chapter 29, sections 113-122, reproduced in Venne, *Indian Acts*, 350-353.
 16. *An Act respecting Indians*, Statutes of Canada 1951, chapter 29, section 119, reproduced in Venne, *Indian Acts*, 352.
 17. TRC, NRA, INAC - Resolution Sector - IRS Historical Files Collection - Ottawa, file 1/25-1-5-2, volume 1, "Regulations With Respect to Teaching, Education, Inspection, and Discipline for Indian Residential Schools, Made and Established for the Superintendent General of Indian Affairs Pursuant to Paragraph (a) of Section 114 of the Indian Act," 20 January 1953. [PAR-001203-0001]
 18. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6039, file 160-1, part 1, Martin Benson, Memorandum, 13, 15 July 1897. [100.00108]
 19. For *Indian Act*, see: *An Act respecting Indians*, Statutes of Canada 1951, chapter 29, sections 113-122, reproduced in Venne, *Indian Acts*, 350-353. For regulations, see: TRC, NRA, INAC - Resolution Sector - IRS Historical Files Collection - Ottawa, file 1/25-1-5-2, volume 1, "Regulations With Respect to Teaching, Education, Inspection, and Discipline for Indian Residential Schools, Made and Established for the Superintendent General of Indian Affairs Pursuant to Paragraph (a) of Section 114 of the Indian Act," 20 January 1953. [PAR-001203-0001]
 20. *The Public Schools Act*, Revised Statutes of Manitoba 1954, chapter 215, 923-1, 114.
 21. *The Manitoba Gazette*, April 9, 1955, 509-510.
 22. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6358, file 758-1, part 1, Reverend Canon Gould to Duncan Campbell Scott, 26 January 1920. [IRC-041334]
 23. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6032, file 150-40A, part 1, Headquarters - Compulsory Attendance of Pupils - Indian Schools, 1904-1933, Microfilm reel C-8149, FA 10-17, Indian Agent, Hagersville to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 20 February 1922; [AEMR-255312] *An Act respecting Indians*, Statutes of Canada 1919-1920, chapter 50, section 1, amending Revised Statutes of Canada 1906, chapter 81, section 10, reproduced in Venne, *Indian Acts*, 178-179.
 24. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6309, file 654-1, part 1, J. K. Irwin to Indian Affairs, 22 October 1926. [GDC-006528]
 25. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6309, file 654-1, part 1, J. D. McLean to J. K. Irwin, 29 October 1926. [GDC-006529]

26. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6032, file 150-40A, part 1, Headquarters - Compulsory Attendance of Pupils - Indian Schools, 1904-1933, Microfilm reel C-8149, FA 10-17, Russell T. Ferrier to Mary Gilbert, 20 October 1926. [AEMR-253333]
27. Canada, *Annual Report of the Department of Indian Affairs, 1891*, 222-243.
28. Canada, *Annual Report of the Department of Indian Affairs, 1892*, xii-xiii, 285-307.
29. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 3879, file 91833, Order-in-Council, 22 October 1892. [RIS-000354]
30. For background, see: TRC, NRA, Anglican Church of Canada, General Synod Archives, ACC-MSCC-GS 75-103, series 3:1, box 48, file 3, E. Pedley to N. Tucker, 26 March 1900. [AAC-000228] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6039, file 160-1, part 1, Superintendent General Indian Affairs to T. Ferrier, 18 July 1908. [AEMR-016328]
31. TRC, NRA, Anglican Church of Canada, General Synod Archives, ACC-MSCC-GS 75-103, series 3:1, box 48, file 3, Assistant-Deputy to S. P. Matheson, 25 November 1910. [AAC-000237]
32. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6039, file 160-1, part 1, "Correspondence and Agreement Relating to the Maintenance and Management of Indian Boarding Schools," Ottawa: Government Printing Bureau, 1911. [AEMR-120208A] For the average per capita grant, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6032, file 150-40A, part 1, Headquarters - Compulsory Attendance of Pupils - Indian Schools, 1904-1933, Microfilm reel C-8149, FA 10-17, "Re: Per Capita Grants at Indian Residential Schools," Russell Ferrier, 5 April 1932. [120.18050] For 1910 rates, see: Canada, *Annual Report of the Department of Indian Affairs, 1910*, 2:55-56.
33. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6039, file 160-1, part 1, Memorandum, 26 June 1917. [AEMR-010655]
34. TRC, NRA, No document location, no document file source, "Notes on Indian Education," Memorandum for Hon. Mr. Meighen, 1919. [AEMR-010656]
35. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6039, file 160-1, part 1, Martin Benson to Scott, 7 February 1916. [100.00230]
36. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 3674, file 11422, E. Dewdney to Thomas Clarke, 31 July 1883. [120.06668]
37. Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 3674, file 11422, L. Vankoughnet to John A. Macdonald, 10 January 1884. Vankoughnet never sent Dewdney a copy of these instructions. When Dewdney accidentally came upon them a year later, he angrily wrote to Vankoughnet, pointing out that the document would "have been a good guide to me in assisting to organize the Schools at High River and Qu'Appelle had I received it before." Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 3674, file 11422-1, E. Dewdney to L. Vankoughnet, 18 November 1884.
38. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6452, file 884-1, part 1, L. Vankoughnet to P. Duriu, 17 October 1889. [AEMR-010307]
39. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6452, file 884-1, part 1, MR C 8773, "Rules and Regulations, Kootenay Industrial School," 17 October 1889 [AEMR-011621A]
40. Canada, *Annual Report of the Department of Indian Affairs, 1894*, xxi. As early as 1897, Schools Branch employee Martin Benson expressed reservations about having the schools inspected by Indian agents, who, he believed, were "opposed to make an adverse report on a school if there is any way of avoiding it, it being more than likely that such action would bring them into collision with the Missionaries and interfere with their authority among the Indians." The department's inspectors, he believed, devoted too much attention to "inventories, statements, returns, accounts, &c, and pass lightly over such high matters as the general prog-

- ress, management and results obtained." There was, he said, no case "in the Department who has ever seen more than a few of our principal schools or known how they are carrying on the work best suited to the wants of the Indians." TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6030, file 100-1, part 1, Martin Benson, Memorandum, 11 July 1907. [NCA-002400]
41. For an example of a principal's calling for pre-screening of students in 1894, see Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 3076, file 11422-5, Indian Commissioner to Superintendent General Indian Affairs, 2 October 1894.
 42. TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 1135, No file number, [Bogobio] for the Commissioner to Principals, 20 May 1896. [JEX-002544-0000]
 43. Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 3077, file 140754-1, Frank Podley to Frank Olson, 19 April 1899.
 44. TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6030, file 100-1, part 1, "Correspondence and Agreement Relating to the Maintenance and Management of Indian Boarding Schools," Ottawa: Government Printing Bureau, 1911. [JEX-002500A]
 45. TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6323, file 656-10, part 1, "Certificate of Health," 5 August 1920. [NCA-002544-0002]
 46. TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6323, file 656-10, part 1, "Certificate of Health," 5 August 1920. [NCA-002544-0002] Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 3077, file 140754-1, Frank Podley to Frank Olson, 19 April 1899.
 47. TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, file 605-10, part 6, Catholic Agency - Rupert Island Industrial School - Admissions - Discharges 1934-1939, FA 16-17, Form, volume 0477, "Application for Admission," 17 March 1933. [JEX-005021]
 48. Hansen, *Regulation of Building Construction: Revue and Association Limited*, Issues Paper, 1-2.
 49. Health Canada, Food and Nutrition, Canada's Food Guides from 1942 to 1982, http://www.hc-sc.gc.ca/fo-an/food-guide-aliment/content/fg_history_histoire_gc-eng.php?file=/ac accessed 14 December 2013.
 50. TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6034, file 1-1-4 MAN, part 1, Thomas Campbell Scott to Mr. McIlhenny, 6 June 1920. [NCA-002400]
 51. TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 3027, file 110030-1A, Martin Benson to Deputy Superintendent General, 1 June 1903. [JEX-000047] TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 2771, file 114045, part 1, Martin Benson to Deputy Superintendent General, 24 June 1903. [JEX-003020] TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6300, file 656-1, part 1, Martin Benson to Deputy Superintendent General, Indian Affairs, 8 September 1906. [JEX-000743] TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6273, file 563-1, part 1, Martin Benson to Mr. Scott, 8 September 1913. [JEX-000017]
 52. TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6034, file 1-1-4 MAN, part 1, Russell T. Forster to R. Fletcher, 10 May 1922. [NCA-002423-0001]
 53. TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6049, file 104113, Tom Leach to J. A. J. McKenna, 22 June 1909. [JEX-001705-0000] TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6034, file 1-1-4 MAN, part 1, Russell T. Forster to A. R. Falls, 6 November 1923. [NCA-002431]
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127. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6189, file 461-5, part 12, W. M. Benedickson to W. E. Harris, 6 June 1950. [CJC-001327]
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- living its usefulness, see: TRC, NRA, No document location, no document file source, Memorandum of interview with Major MacKay, Indian Commissioner, Archdiocese of Vancouver, Archbishop's Office, 25 October 1946. [ABV-001273]
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 154. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, NAC, file 772/6-1-001, 01/67-10/69, "Cluny Indian School Closing," by Don Peacock [Calgary *Albertan*], 20 December 1969. [CFT-002237]
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 160. Grzybowski and Allen, "Tuberculosis," 1025.
 161. Farrell, *Congress on Tuberculosis*, 12.
 162. Dubos and Dubos, *White Plague*, 176-177.
 163. Dubos and Dubos, *White Plague*, 181; Wherrett, *Miracle of the Empty Beds*, 39, 41.
 164. McCuaig, *Weariness, Fever, and Fret*, 27-28; Wherrett, *Miracle of the Empty Beds*, 42.
 165. McCuaig, *Weariness, Fever, and Fret*, 32-33.
 166. Dubos and Dubos, *White Plague*, 185-186; McCuaig, *Weariness, Fever, and Fret*, 189-192, 253; Murray, "A Century of Tuberculosis," 1181.
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 168. McCuaig, *Weariness, Fever, and Fret*, 198.
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206. For complaints from the Whiting, Manitoba, school, see TBC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG 10, volume 1007, file 1007-00, part 1, Letter Received to R. E. Grant, 10 August 1906, 2006-000000-0000; For complaints from the Sarnia Catholic school in The Pas, Manitoba, see TBC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG 10, volume 1005, file 1005-00, 1 & 2, part 1, R. E. Moore to Regional Superintendent, Central Region, 1906, 17 May 1906, 2006-000000; For complaints from the La Tuque, Quebec, school, see TBC, NHA, Quebec Regional Service Centre, LAC - Quebec City, Arc. 80-100, box 80100, file 1007-00, 1 & 2, (Letter to R. E. MacLennan, 27 January 1906, 2006-000000-0000); For concerns from the Sarnia Catholic school in Carleton Place, see TBC, NHA, Provincial Institute - Ottawa, PNA 70, 200 Series 2006, 1 & 2, 1 (Letter to Mr. Tully, 10 November 1907, 2006-000000-0000)

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1. The first step in the process of developing a curriculum is to identify the needs of the community. This involves a thorough analysis of the current state of the community and the future needs of its members. This step is crucial as it determines the direction of the curriculum and ensures that it is relevant and responsive to the community's needs.
2. The second step is to establish a curriculum committee. This committee should be composed of representatives from various stakeholders, including teachers, parents, and community members. The committee's role is to oversee the development and implementation of the curriculum, ensuring that it meets the needs of the community and is aligned with educational standards.
3. The third step is to conduct a needs assessment. This involves gathering data on the current state of the community and the future needs of its members. This can be done through surveys, interviews, and focus groups. The data collected is used to identify the specific needs of the community and to inform the development of the curriculum.
4. The fourth step is to develop the curriculum. This involves selecting the content, methods, and materials that will be used to teach the curriculum. The curriculum should be designed to be engaging, interactive, and culturally responsive. It should also be aligned with educational standards and be able to be implemented in the community's schools.
5. The fifth step is to implement the curriculum. This involves putting the curriculum into practice in the community's schools. This step requires careful planning and coordination with teachers and other staff. It also requires ongoing monitoring and evaluation to ensure that the curriculum is being implemented effectively and is meeting the needs of the community.
6. The sixth step is to evaluate the curriculum. This involves assessing the impact of the curriculum on the community and its members. This can be done through surveys, interviews, and focus groups. The evaluation should focus on the curriculum's effectiveness, its alignment with educational standards, and its responsiveness to the community's needs.
7. The seventh step is to revise the curriculum. Based on the results of the evaluation, the curriculum committee may need to make revisions to the curriculum. This could involve updating the content, methods, and materials, or making other changes to improve the curriculum's effectiveness and responsiveness.
8. The eighth step is to disseminate the curriculum. This involves sharing the curriculum with other schools and communities. This can be done through workshops, conferences, and other outreach activities. Disseminating the curriculum helps to ensure that it is widely used and that it has a positive impact on the community.
9. The ninth step is to monitor and evaluate the curriculum's impact. This involves ongoing monitoring and evaluation of the curriculum's impact on the community and its members. This can be done through surveys, interviews, and focus groups. The monitoring and evaluation should focus on the curriculum's effectiveness, its alignment with educational standards, and its responsiveness to the community's needs.
10. The tenth step is to report on the curriculum's impact. This involves preparing a report on the curriculum's impact on the community and its members. The report should include information on the curriculum's effectiveness, its alignment with educational standards, and its responsiveness to the community's needs. The report is used to inform the community and other stakeholders about the curriculum's impact and to guide future curriculum development.

226. For a report on the role that two students played in helping fellow students escape from a fire at the Norway House school, see: Agnaggon, "Smoke and Flying Children," 55–56.
227. For Henry's comments, see: TBC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6033, file 636-62, part 1, R. A. Henry to H. McGill, 31 May 1948. [NR23-001221] For closure, see: TBC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6210, file 606-10, part 2, Samuel Devlin to Indian Affairs, 20 May 1948. [NR26-00006-0000]
228. TBC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6333, file 601-2, part 6, R. E. Tollen, Fire Commissioner to J. P. B. Oomsden, 31 August 1976. [R26-000572]
229. TBC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6333, file 601-3, part 6, Mrs. C. Maxwell Loeys to E. M. MacKay, 2 June 1976. [R26-000580]
230. TBC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6072, Shannon file, 1948, Misc. Outgoing Correspondence, E. Matton to Indian Affairs, 2 February 1948. [CRS-000610] TBC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6392, file 602-3, part 9, Henry Cook to R. E. Neary, 4 March 1948. [CRS-00070-0000] TBC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6392, file 602-3, part 9, E. Matton to Indian Affairs, 21 April 1948. [CRS-000900] TBC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6392, file 602-3, part 9, Bernard Neary to E. Matton, 1 May 1948. [CRS-000900] TBC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6392, Shannon file, 1948, Letters to Indian Affairs Branch, L. L. Whitney to Philip Pothan, 21 July 1948. [CRS-002092]
231. For involvement, see: TBC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6065, file 651/6-1, part 6, R. A. W. Switzer to E. S. Jones, 8 October 1973. [PXB-017001-0000] For fire hazards, see: TBC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6065, file 651/6-1, part 1, Minister of Citizenship and Immigration to the Excellency, the Governor General in Council, 22 November 1970. [PXB-000704] TBC, NHA, INAC – Resolution Section – 100 Historical Files Collection – Ottawa, Prince Albert Box 1, 1973-74, Prince Albert District Child Conference, Petition from Prince Albert District Child, Tom Sotter and nine others, 22 May 1973. [PXB-000305-0000]
232. Robert M. Wilkins, "Wooden Shanty: A Century Worth Celebrating for Westmount Park School," *Montreal Gazette*, 22 November 2013. <http://www.montrealgazette.com/news/century-worth-celebrating-Westmount-Park-School/9202002-story.html>.
233. Archib, "Fire Escapes in Urban America," 56; "Cathedral School Fire," <http://web.cmc.edu/web/cgi/article.pl?id=C&f> (accessed 13 January 2013).
234. Archib, "Fire Escapes in Urban America," 56.
235. TBC, NHA, Document location unknown, documents file source, file 206/6-1 (CF), C. H. Buck to W. S. Ayoub, 7 October 1957. [ANMB-000021]
236. See, for example: TBC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6056, file 605-3, part 1, Microfilm reel C. 4777, Deputy Superintendent General to A. W. Vowell, 23 November 1946. [R23P-000077]
237. TBC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6029, David Laird to Principals of all Indian Boarding and Residential Schools, 11 March 1906. [ANMB-252007]
238. TBC, NHA, Provincial Archives of Alberta, PAX 71, 220 854 2275, Thomas Scott to Principals of Indian Residential Schools, 6 October 1927. [R2P-020014] For number of deaths in Burnham fire, see: TBC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6306, file 650-1, part 1, O. Chubbuck to Duncan Scott, 21 September 1927. [R2P-000076] TBC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6306, file 650-1, part 1, Louis Stelovic Adams to Indian Affairs, 22 September 1927. [R2P-000079]

309. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 11552, file 312-11, part 2, Russell T. Ferrier and Duncan C. Scott to Principals of Indian Residential Schools, 5 February 1932. [AFMR-177210]
310. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 7185, file 1/25-1-6-1, part 1, R. A. Hoey to Principals of Indian Residential Schools, 10 February 1938; [SRS-001560-0001] INAC - Resolution Sector - IRS Historical Files Collection - Ottawa, 772/23-5-010, 1894-1966, volume DRS80, I. N. R. Iredale to Indian Affairs, 21 February 1946. [MOR-001068]
311. For an example of an inspection that specifically linked crowded dormitories and the blocking of fire exits, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6274, file 583-5, part 8, Geo. H. Spriggs to I. Waite, 3 December 1945. [PLP-000812-0001]
312. For Birtle, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6251, file 575-1, part 1, G. H. Wheatley to David Laird, 13 March 1901. [BIR-000015] For Mission, see: Library and Archives Canada, file 153/6-1-800, volume 2, St. Mary's Ind. Res. School General, Jan/55-Feb 24/64, FA 10-XX, Acc. 78-C-18, Parc Box 308320, Temp box 28, National Archives of Canada - Burnaby, A. O'N. Daint to D. C. Scott, 7 March 1928. [MIS-010270] For Sault Ste. Marie, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6212, file 469-5, part 3, W. J. Phillips to A. S. McCaig, 20 October 1928. [SWK-001252] For Hobbema, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6353, file 754-5, part 2, D., 1926-1936, Microfilm reel C-8758, W. M. Graham to Duncan C. Scott, 17 May 1930. [EDM-003837] For Qu'Appelle, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6328, file 660-5, part 3, Extract from Inspector Hamilton's Report regarding his inspection of the Qu'Appelle Indian Residential school on 7 and 8 March 1932. [PLD-008542] For Ahousaht, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, volume 6430, file 876-5, part 3, West Coast Agency - Ahousaht Residential School - Building Maintenance - Supplies - Accounts, 1931-1938, FA 10-17, Microfilm reel C-8759, "West Coast Agency Inspection Report, No. 9," Geo. S. Pragnell, 18 August 1937. [AST-200097] For Qu'Appelle, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6328, file 660-5, part 3, J. Sutherland to Dr. McGill, 14 October 1933. [PLD-008580] For Lac La Ronge, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6316, file 656-5, part 7, Philip Phelan to T. B. R. Westgate, 15 August 1941. [PAR-008547] For Moose Factory, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 8253, file 486/6-1-001, part 5, I. Matters to Indian Affairs, 25 June 1954. [MF1-008510] For Fort Providence, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG22, Perm. volume 1089, file 250-11-17, part 1, Fort Providence - School 1957, FA 22-3, Ben Sivertz to Deputy Minister, 12 November 1957. [FPU-002208] For Brocket, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada - Ottawa, RG10, volume 8758, file 773/25-1, part 2, R. F. Battle to Indian Affairs Branch, 11 June 1953. [SAC-001075-0000]
313. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, box 2, Acc. 1988-01431-6, file 1/1-2-2-21, part 2, D. Kogawa to Director Education Services, 8 February 1968. [NCA-003014]
314. TRC, NRA, National Capital Regional Service Centre - LAC - Ottawa, file 671/6-2-025, volume 4, Onion Lake Band Council Resolution, 31 July 1974. [ORC-008733-0002]
315. For Satree, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 1642, 1894-1896, Samuel Lucas to Indian Commissioner, Regina, 13 January 1896. [SAR-000320] For Fraser Lake, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6444, file 881-5, part 2, 1922-1924, Microfilm reel C-8767, "Extract from Inspector's Report on the Fraser Lake Residential School," 23 April 1923. [LEJ-003751] For Edmonton, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, School Files, volume 6350, file 753-5, part 1, NAC, W. M. Graham to D. C. Scott, 3 April 1924. [EDM-003806] For Port Simpson, see: Library and Archives Canada,

file 886-5, part 2, Skeena River Agency - Port Simpson United Church Residential School - Building Maintenance - Supplies - Accounts, 1933-1950, FA 10-17, Perm. volume 6458, Microfilm reel C-8779, "Extract from Inspector Barry's Report Regarding his Inspection of the Port Simpson Indian Residential School, 21 May 1937." [PSM-200553] For Ahousaht, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6431, file 876-6, part 1, West Coast Agency - Ahousaht Residential School - Inspectors' Reports, 1933-1940, FA 10-17, Microfilm reel C-8759, "Inspector's Report on Ahousaht Indian Residential School," Gerald H. Barry, 4 April 1939. [AST-200078-0003]

316. For Gleichen, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, School Files, volume 6358, file 758-1, part 1, P. H. Gentleman to Dr. Westgate, 2 April 1921. [OLD-000468] For Qu'Appelle, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6273, file 583-5, part 4, M. Christianson to Indian Affairs, 1 December 1927. [PLP-000874-0001] For Edmonton, see: Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6350, file 753-5, part 1, J. F. Woodsworth to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 4 May 1925. [EDM-00115] For Williams Lake, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6436, file 878-1, part 2, Williams Lake Agency - Cariboo Industrial School - General Administration, 1913-1937, FA 10-17, Microfilm reel C-8762, G. Forbes to A. F. MacKenzie, 13 December 1932. [JOE-201925-0001] For Fort Alexander, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6265, file 579-5, part 6, S. Perrault to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 1 June 1934. [FAR-002747]
317. For the Presbyterian school in Kenora, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6189, file 461-5, part 8, E. Dubois to E. Edwards, 16 September 1940. [CJC-000758-0001] For Sioux Lookout, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6215, file 470-5, part 4, Gifford Swartman to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 14 November 1940. [PLK-000163] For Cranbrook, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6453, file 884-5, part 5, 1936-1941, Kootenay Agency - Kootenay Residential School - Building Maintenance - Supplies - Accounts, FA 10-17, Microfilm reel C-8775, NAC, Ottawa, D. M. MacKay to Secretary Indian Affairs, 21 May 1941; [EGN-004992] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, FA 10-177 v93-94/038 and v95-96/047, Perm. volume 13215 23-4, Agent's Monthly Reports - Kootenay Agency [formerly Shannon File, now in 2 parts], 12/1943-04/1950, NAC, Burnaby, J. M. Barre to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 2 October 1945. [EGN-004086] For Fort Alexander, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6266, file 579-5, part 9, E. McPherson to Indian Affairs, 5 November 1941. [FAR-000024] For Brantford, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6201, file 466-5, part 5, N. C. Rathburn to W. J. Zimmerman, 9 March 1946. [TAY-002400-0001] For Edmonton, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6351, file 753-5, part 6, 1947, Microfilm reel C-8707, J. H. Leyland to R. R. Moore, 23 December 1946; [EDM-004444] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG29, volume 3127, file 860-8-X400, part 1a, E. L. Stone to Superintendent of Indian Health Services, 31 May 1946; [NPC-621076-01] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6351, [110]774/6-1-753, volume I, 09/45-12/53, NAC, E. A. Robertson to Indian Affairs, 1 November 1948; [EDM-004918] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6351, file 753-5, part 7, 1947-1949, Microfilm reels C8707 and C8708, E. J. Staley to E. A. Robertson, 28 February 1949. [EDM-007300] For Whitefish Lake, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6380, file 769-5, part 3, G. S. Lapp, Superintendent, Department of Mines and Resources, Indian Affairs Branch to Indian Affairs Branch, 5 November 1948. [WFL-000494-0000] For Prince Albert, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 8645, file 651/6-1, part 2, D. N. Morrison to J. P. B. Ostrander, 27 July 1951; [PAR-

- 017611-0001] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 8645, file 651/6-1, part 5, Fire Inspection Report, March 1954, Prince Albert Indian Residential School, Department of Citizenship and Immigration, March 1954. [PAR-000612] For Kamsack, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 8663, file 673/6-1-037, part 2, R. Beauregard to R. S. Davy [likely R. F. Davey], 25 July 1955. [SPR-001501] For Lower Post, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 8693, file 954/6-1, part 6, G. J. Bowen to W. S. Arneil, 15 November 1956. [LOW-042497-0001] For Fort George, see: TRC, NRA, INAC - Resolution Sector - IRS Historical Files Collection - Ottawa, file 74/6-1-350, volume 1, W. J. Harvey to Indian Affairs, Ottawa, 9 April 1956. [FGA-000299] For Cardston, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, 773/6-1-004, volume 8677, part 6, 1957-1958, NAC, Office of the Fire Commissioner, St. Paul's Residential School, 25 November 1957; [PUL-005151-0001] TRC, NRA, INAC - Resolution Sector - IRS Historical Files Collection - Ottawa, 103/6-1-750, 12/57-09/58, volume 4, RCAP, Office of the Fire Commissioner, St. Mary's Residential School, 26 November 1957. [MRY-000939] For Kuper Island, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada - Burnaby, RG10, FA 10-136, Acc. 1984-85/316, volume 28 [500326], file 988/6-1-885-10, Kuper Island Indian Res. School - Fire Prevention, 1957-1964, J. V. Boys to Indian Commissioner for British Columbia, 30 May 1958. [KUP-012371] For McIntosh, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 8278, file 494/6-1-015, part 4, J. S. Allan to Mr. Matters, 21 January 1958. [MCI-001918-0001]
318. For Birtle, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6253, file 575-5, part 7, R. Webb to Indian Office, Birtle, Manitoba, 13 March 1943. [BIR-000287-0001] For Hobberna, see: TRC, NRA, Provincial Archives of Alberta, PAA 71.220 B92 3891, C. Pant. Schmidt to Principal, Ermineskin, Alberta, school, 10 January 1944 (pages 8-9). [OGP-030428] For Brantford, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6201, file 466-5, part 5, N. C. Rathburn to W. J. Zimmerman, 9 March 1946. [TAY-002400-0001] For Prince Albert, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6201, file 466-5, part 5, N. C. Rathburn to W. J. Zimmerman, 9 March 1946; [TAY-002400-0001] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 8645, file 651/6-1, part 4, R. A. W. Switzer to E. S. Jones, 8 October 1953. [PAR-017891-0001] For Kamsack, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 8664, file 673/6-1-037, part 3, G. Püzel to E. S. Jones, 21 November 1955. [SPR-002123-0001] For Calais, see: TRC, NRA, No document location, no document file source, Department of the Provincial Secretary, Officer of the Fire Commissioner, Re: Sturgeon Lake Indian School, Calais, Alberta, 14 July 1959. [GMA-002257-0001]
319. For example, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 2047, file 9212, part 2, W. W. Shepherd to Superintendent General, Indian Affairs, 26 November 1890. [MER-001342]
320. For example, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6307, file 653-5, part 4, George Dodds to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 5 March 1932. [FHR-000215]
321. For example, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6307, file 653-5, part 4, George Dodds to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 13 February 1932. [FHR-000853]
322. For Squamish, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6467, file 889-5, part 1, 1908-1932, Vancouver Agency - Squamish Residential School - Building Maintenance - Supplies - Accounts, FA 10-17, Microfilm reel C-8785, NAC, Ottawa, O. L. Lister to Sister Superior, 20 February 1923. [SQU-002300-0001] For Lac La Ronge, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6316, file 656-5, part 3, Duncan C. Scott to Charles Stewart, 14 November 1923. [PAR-008605] For Muncney, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives

Canada, RG10, volume 6206, file 468-5, part 5, "Extract From Inspector's Report on the Mount Elgin Residential School, June 6, 1924," J. H. Sexton. [MER-000708] For Mission, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6470, file 890-5, part 2, A. O'N. Daunt to D. C. Scott, 15 September 1926; [MIS-000042] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6470, file 890-5, part 3, G. S. Pragnell, "Inspection report New Westminster Agency, 15 December 1930." [MIS-000066] For Kenora, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6197, file 465-5, part 2, "Extract from Report of Inspector Bennett on the Kenora Residential School, 8 October 1926"; [KNR-000721] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6197, file 465-5, part 2, Frank Edwards to Assistant Deputy Minister and Secretary, Indian Affairs, 6 December 1927; [KNR-000838] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6197, file 465-5, part 2, F. J. McDonald to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 5 May 1928; [KNR-001593] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6198, file 465-5, part 6, "Excerpt from Grand Jury Inspection Report on the Kenora Residential School," 3 November 1938. [KNR-000720] For Birtle, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6252, file 575-5, part 2, H. B. Currie to Indian Affairs, 12 October 1927. [BIR-000090] For Portage la Prairie, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6273, file 583-5, part 4, W. A. Hendry to W. Graham, 5 October 1927. [PLP-000869-0001] For Cranbrook, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6453, file 884-5, part 2, 1924-1930, Kootenay Agency - Kootenay Residential School - Vocational Training - Supplies - Accounts, FA 10-17, Microfilm reel C-8774, L. Choinel to E. H. Small, 11 January 1928; [EGN-007479] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6453, file 884-5, part 5, 1936-1941, Kootenay Agency - Kootenay Residential School - Building Maintenance - Supplies - Accounts, FA 10-17, Microfilm reel C-8775, NAC, Ottawa, "Inspection of the St. Mary's Indian School, Mission, Cranbrook, British Columbia," 25 October 1938. [EGN-004990] For Round Lake, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6332, file 661-1, part 2, A. G. Hamilton to Mr. Graham, 11 September 1929. [RLS-000282-0001] For Round Lake, Hobbema, Sandy Bay, and Grayson, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6333, file 661-5, part 3, "Excerpt from letter dated July 6, 1938 from Dr. J. J. Wall." [RLS-000398] For Whitefish Lake, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6380, file 769-5, part 1, T. B. R. Westgate, the Secretary, Indian Affairs, 20 July 1929. [WFL-000116] For File Hills, see: Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6307, file 653-5, part 4, George Dodds to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 13 February 1932. [FHR-000853] For Hobbema, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6353, file 754-5, part 2, D., 1926-1936, Microfilm reel C-8709, W. M. Graham to Duncan C. Scott, 17 May 1930. [EDM-003837] For Christie, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6440, file 879-5, part 3, West Coast Agency - Christie Industrial School - Building Maintenance - Supplies - Accounts - 1932-1940, FA 10-17, Microfilm reel C-8763, NAC, Ottawa, "Extract from Report of Inspector G. H. Barry Dated April 25, 1934, on his inspection of the Christie Indian Residential School." [CST-006646] For Delmas, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6337, file 663-5, part 3, Thomas Robertson to Indian Affairs, 27 October 1937. [THR-000201] For Brocket (on the Peigan Reserve), see: TRC, NRA, RG10, volume 6350, file 753-5, part 2, 1925-1929, Microfilm reel C-8707, W. M. Graham to D. C. Scott, 14 October 1927. [EDM-007410] For Cluny, see: TRC, NRA, RG10, volume 8451, file 772/23-5-001, "Agent's Report," G. H. Gooderham, June and July, 1935. [CFT-001732] For Sioux Lookout, see: Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6215, file 470-5, part 4, John Marshall to A. G. Hamilton, 17 March 1938. [PLK-000148-0001] For Fraser Lake, see: TRC, NRA, Library and

- Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6444, file 881-5, part 4, 1926-1933, Microfilm reel C-8768, "Extract from Indian Agent Moore's Report for the Month of February 1932, regarding the Lejac Indian Residential School"; [LEJ-004508] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6444, file 881-5, part 5, 1933-1938, Microfilm reel C-8768, "Report and recommendations of the school engineer concerning Fire Fighting equipment at the School," 16 February 1938. [LEJ-004713] For Lytton, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6444, file 881-5, part 6, 1938-1941, Microfilm reel C-8768, "Extract from Inspector Barry's report dated October 16, 1939." [LEJ-002948]
323. For Shubenacadie, see: TRC, NRA, DIAND, file 6-15-1, volume 1, Report of Commission on Indian Affairs, 1946. [AEMR-016240] For Christie, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada - Burnaby, 951/6-1-879, part 1, Christie IRS, 03/1945-06/1948, FA 10-138, Perm. volume 13389, National Archives of Canada - Burnaby, Fire Marshal to D. M. MacKay, 30 December 1946. [CST-004152] For Brantford, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6201, file 466-5, part 5, N. C. Rathburn to W. J. Zimmerman, 9 March 1946. [TAY-002400-0001] For the Roman Catholic school in Kenora, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6199, file 465-5, part 11, Norman Paterson to Indian Affairs Branch, 15 April 1947. [KNR-000518] For Whitefish Lake, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6380, file 769-5, part 3, G. S. Lapp, Superintendent, Department of Mines and Resources, Indian Affairs Branch to Indian Affairs Branch, 5 November 1948. [WFL-000494-0000] For Moose Factory, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 8259, file 486/6-1-001, part 1, Henry Cook to B. E. Neary, 7 January 1950. [MFI-000351] For Fort Frances, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 8257, file 485/6-1-001, part 1, J. E. Lockhart to Indian Affairs, 20 October 1950. [FFR-000307] For the Presbyterian school in Kenora, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6189, file 461-5, part 12, W. M. Benidickson to W. E. Harris, 6 June 1950. [CJC-001327] For Prince Albert, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 8645, file 651/6-1, part 2, D. N. Morrison to J. P. B. Ostrander, 27 July 1951. [PAR-017611-0001] For Kamsack, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 8664, file 673/6-1-037, part 3, G. Pitel to E. S. Jones, 21 November 1955. [SPR-002123-0001] For Fort Providence, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG22, Perm. volume 1069, file 250-11-17, part 1, Fort Providence - School 1957, FA 22-3, John Parker to G. Robertson, 22 October 1957. [FPU-002206] For Jous-sard, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 8685, file 777/6-1-007, part 4, Department of the Provincial Secretary, Office of the Fire Commissioner, 21 August 1958. [JRD-004129-0001] For Cardston, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, 773/6-1-004, volume 8677, part 6, 1957-1958, NAC, Office of the Fire Commissioner, St. Paul's Residential School, 25 November 1957; [PUL-005151-0001] TRC, NRA, INAC - Resolution Sector - IRS Historical Files Collection - Ottawa, 103/6-1-750, 12/57-09/58, volume 4, RCAP, Office of the Fire Commissioner, St. Mary's Residential School, 26 November 1957. [MRY-000939] For McIntosh, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 8278, file 494/6-1-015, part 4, J. S. Allan to Mr. Matters, 21 January 1958. [MCI-001918-0001] For Calais, see: TRC, NRA, No document location, no document file source, Department of the Provincial Secretary, Officer of the Fire Commissioner, Re: Sturgeon Lake Indian School, Calais, Alberta, 14 July 1959. [GMA-002257-0001]
324. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6453, file 884-5, part 5, 1936-1941, Kootenay Agency - Kootenay Residential School - Building Maintenance - Supplies - Ac-

- counts, FA 10-17, Microfilm reel C-8775, NAC, Ottawa, "Inspection of the St. Mary's Indian School, Mission, Cranbrook, British Columbia," Adams, P., 25 October 1938. [ECN-000000]
325. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 8253, file 478/6-1-001, part 7, N. C. Rathburn to W. J. Zimmerman, 10 February 1958. [TAY-000042]
326. For an example of a building identified as a fire trap in 1901 and again in 1927, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6252, file 575-5, part 2, W. Morrison to W. Graham, 17 November 1927. [JHR-000093] For an example of a school in need of replacement since 1923, but still in operation in 1934, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6378, file 767-5, part 2, E. B. R. Westgate, to The Secretary, Indian Affairs, 18 January 1934. [JON-000270]
327. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 8259, file 486/6-1-001, part 1, W. I. Scott to Indian Affairs, 12 January 1950. [MFI-000352]
328. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 8259, file 486/6-1-001, part 5, Henry Cook to R. F. Davey, 17 September 1954. [MFI-000519]
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424. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6267, file 580-1, part 2, T. B. R. Westgate to Duncan C. Scott, 7 December 1925; [DRS-000553] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6267, file 580-1, part 2, W. M. Graham, 7 January 1926. [DRS-000558]
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426. TRC, NRA, Provincial Archives of Alberta, PAA 71.220 B31 1277, Thomas H. M. Tuck to Reverend Father, 16 October 1933. [OGP-060101]
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433. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6436, file 878-1, part 2, J. D. McLean to A. O'N. Daunt, 9 August 1920. [IRC-047109]
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438. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 3920, file 116818, "Report on Investigation of Complaints made by Thos. Ross and Daniel S. Kern, regarding the management of the Red Deer Industrial School, held under the instructions of the Indian Commissioner's Letter No. 37/47 dated December 26th, 1902," W. J. Chisholm. [EDM-003971]
439. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6268, file 580-5, part 5, A. G. Hamilton, no date, 7-8. [DRS-000619]
440. Audette, "Report on The Commission," 15.
441. Audette, "Report on The Commission," 15.
442. Audette, "Report on The Commission," 16.
443. TRC, NRA, Provincial Archives Alberta, PAA 71.220 B31 1277, Russell T. Ferrier to U. Langlois, 8 April 1932. [OGP-060088]
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446. United Church of Canada Archives, Winnipeg, Andrew Baird Papers, E 1955-1959, G. G. McLaren to Rev. Baird, 16 November 1892, quoted in Hildebrand, "Staff Perspectives," 137-138.
447. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6436, file 878-1, part 1, Statement of Reverend Henry Boening, 3 March 1902. [IRC-047093]
448. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, School Files, volume 6358, file 758-1, part 1, 20 August 1919; [OLD-000497] RG10, volume 6358, file 758-1, part 1, "Statement taken by Constable Wright, RNWMP, 27 November 1919"; [RC-041330] Thomas Graham to W. M. Graham, 1 December 1919; [IRC-041328] P. H. Gentleman to Canon Gould, 12 January 1920. [IRC-041335]
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451. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6193, file 462-10, part 1, A. J. Vale to Secretary Indian Affairs, 27 April 1936. [CRS-001254]
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455. For Shubenacadie, see: Audette, "Report on The Commission," 4-5. For Cluny, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6348, Microfilm reel 8705, file 752-1, part 1, 1894-1936, "Extract from Nurse Ramage's report, November 1921"; [IRC-047117-0001] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6348, Microfilm reel 8705, file 752-1, part 1, 1894-1936, "Extract from monthly report of Nurse Margaret Jean Ramage, October 1921." [CFT-000147]
456. For Williams Lake, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6436, file 878-1, part 1, Statement of Augustine, 3 March 1902. [IRC-047087] For The Pas, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6267, file 580-1, part 2, J. W. Waddy to W. M. Graham, 5 October 1925. [DRS-000543-0001]

457. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6436, file 878-1, part 1, Statement of Ellen Charlie, 28 February 1902. [IRC-047081]
458. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6436, file 878-1, part 1, Statement of Sister Euphresia, 3 March 1902. [IRC-047094]
459. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6422, file 869-1, part 3, Cecil Perkins to Indian Commissioner, Vancouver, 20 June [1940]. [IRC-041349]
460. For Brantford, 1914, see: "Damages for Plaintiff in Miller Vs. Ashton Case," *Brantford Expositor*, 1 April 1914. For Cluny, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6348, Microfilm reel 8705, file 752-1, part 1, 1894-1936, "Extract from Nurse Ramage's report, November 1921"; [IRC-047117-0001] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6348, Microfilm reel 8705, file 752-1, part 1, 1894-1936, "Extract from monthly report of Nurse Margaret Jean Ramage, October 1921." [CFT-000147] For The Pas, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6267, file 580-1, part 2, J. W. Waddy to W. M. Graham, 5 October 1925. [DRS-000543-0001] For Shubenacadie, see: Audette, "Report on The Commission," 9-10. For Brantford, 1937, see: TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6200, file 466-1, part 3, H. H. Craig to H. A. Snell, 29 July 1937. [MSC-000080-0001]
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462. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, file 752-1, volume 6348, part 1, 1894-1936, J. Riou to Superintendent General of Indian Affairs, 10 January 1922. [IRC-048217]
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464. E. F. Wilson, Autobiographical Journal, 47, quoted in Porter, "The Anglican Church," 33.
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466. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10 (Red), volume 2771, file 154845, part 1, J. G. Ramsden to J. D. McLean, 23 December 1907. [TAY-003542]
467. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6197, file 465-1, part 1, Minakijikok to D. C. Scott, 30 September 1924; [KNR-000804-0001] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6197, file 465-1, part 1, Frank Edwards to Assistant Deputy and Secretary, Indian Affairs, 8 October 1924. [KNR-000803]
468. TRC, NRA, INAC - Resolution Sector - IRS Historical Files Collection - Ottawa, file E 4974-0216, volume 4, Frayling to J. W. Waddy, 6 October 1938. [IRC-047124]
469. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 2771, file 154845, part 1, Kelly and Porter to Superintendent General, Indian Affairs, 29 September 1913. [TAY-001781-0001]
470. TRC, NRA, Anglican Church of Canada, General Synod Archives, MSCC-GS 75-103, series 2-15, box 29, file 10, Anglican Document No. 52.63, Victoria Ketcheson and Patricia Watson, 29 November 1952. [PAR-001992]
471. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6436, file 878-1, part 1, Statement of Christine Haines, 28 February. [IRC-047082]
472. "Damages for Plaintiff in Miller vs. Ashton Case," *Brantford Expositor*, 1 April 1914.
473. For Shubenacadie, see: Audette, "Report on The Commission," 6. For Gordon's, see: TRC, NRA, INAC - Resolution Sector - IRS Historical Files Collection - Ottawa, file E 4974-0216, volume 4, Frayling to J. W. Waddy, 6 October 1938. [IRC-047124]
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486. TRC, NRA, INAC, file 487/25-1-014, #63-7, Residential Schools Record Office, R. E. Davey to I. B. Robinson, 19 October 1956; [TRC-041204] TRC, NRA, INAC, file 487/25-1-014, #63-7, Residential Schools Record Office, I. B. Robinson to R. E. Davey, 25 October 1956. [TRC-041205]
487. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada - Edmonton, RG10, Acc. E. 1986-07/415, file 25-1, box 31/56, J. G. McGill to Superintendent, 19 June 1965; [TRC-041241] TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada - Edmonton, RG10, Acc. E. 1986-07/415, file 25-1, box 31/56, K. Kerr to Regional Supervisor, 20 June 1965. [TRC-041243]
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492. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, file 118/3-3-8, part 1, 1958-60, 10016, Mr. and Mrs. Matthew Houlie, 14 January 1958. [TRC-040104]
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497. TBC, NDA, Anglican Church of Canada, General Synod Archives, CA 75-103, series 2-25, box 24, Superintendent, "Superintendent's Conversations with Principal O'Brien re: St. George's Residential School, in Winnipeg, Manitoba, December 2, 1983," 2 December 1983. [PA: 881202]
498. TBC, NDA, INAC, file 88/25-1-414, 414-1, Residential Schools Record Office, L. R. Johnson to R. E. Thury, 27 October 1976. [BC: 881207]
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502. For Saskatchewan, see TBC, NDA, INAC - Resolution Sector - IHS Historical Files Collection - Ottawa, file 87/25-1-418, volume 2 (January 17-19), R. E. Thury to H. R. Wallace, 4 July 1987. [BC: 880704] TBC, NDA, INAC - Resolution Sector - IHS Historical Files Collection - Ottawa, file 87/25-1-418, volume 2, January 17-19, H. R. Wallace to R. E. Thury, 12 July 1987. [BC: 880711] TBC, NDA, Library and Archives Canada - Edmonton, RG 98, Acc. 2, 8888-87/25, file 25-1, box 14/96, I. G. McCloy to Superintendent, 19 June 1985. [BC: 881221] For the Yukon, see TBC, NDA, Library and Archives Canada - Ottawa, file 88/25-1-488, volume 1, Information - Carcross IHS, 87/1987-82/1982, RG 98-171, V1988-86/198, box 36, M. G. James to H. Nielsen, 21 January 1988. [PA: 881106] For Quebec, see TBC, NDA, INAC - Resolution Sector - IHS Historical Files Collection - Ottawa, file 87/25-13-424, volume 1, C. J. Smith and L. Proulx to A. R. Johnson, 13 October 1976. [PA: 881179-8812]
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611. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6468, file 890-1, part 1, Father J. A. Bedard to F. Devlin, 14 October 1899. [MIS-001422]
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Community inspection and mapping can be complicated by previous destruction and destruction of surface evidence, while mapping vegetation can obscure the grass evidence and destruction. The full spatial extent of destruction and vegetation reconstruction also requires the location, with reconstructed grass reconstructing evidence of surface and beyond the reconstructed community limits. Natural destruction in the ground surface can be extensive the reconstructed grass making it difficult to geographically determine the boundaries of the community. Community mapping and reconstruction using reconstructed vegetation may require reconstruction of a range of investigation methods that require specialized skills.

In the case of well reconstructed communities, which are geographically reconstructed might involve little more than reconstructing grass (Local Reconstructing Systems (LRPS), vegetation, a community and the same region. This might be sufficient to establish a reconstructed grid and map of the distribution of grass in the community. In the case of destruction of vegetation, where reconstructed grass are no longer visible, are spread out, or are integrated with vegetation, the evidence that is more challenging. Mapping might also include aerial photography, using reconstructed vegetation or other evidence of reconstructing beyond the visible light spectrum (such as infrared and ultraviolet). This imagery can determine the differential vegetation growth patterns that characterize grass and other ground distributions. If geographically reconstructed and mapped with ground inspection, these images might offer sufficient map resolution to confirm the reconstructed patterns. This high resolution image collection might include an image, or that collected with conventional ground or reconstructed aerial within (1996 or "Waters") (Thomas) by the appropriate methodology involving the reconstruction of a reconstruction based on the maximum size of feature to be detected, the nature of vegetation cover, the degree

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2085-2086, 2087-2088, 2089-2090, 2091-2092, 2093-2094, 2095-2096, 2097-2098, 2099-2100, 2101-2102, 2103-2104, 2105-2106, 2107-2108, 2109-2110, 2111-2112, 2113-2114, 2115-2116, 2117-2118, 2119-2120, 2121-2122, 2123-2124, 2125-2126, 2127-2128, 2129-2130, 2131-2132, 2133-2134, 2135-2136, 2137-2138, 2139-2140, 2141-2142, 2143-2144, 2145-2146, 2147-2148, 2149-2150, 2151-2152, 2153-2154, 2155-2156, 2157-2158, 2159-2160, 2161-2162, 2163-2164, 2165-2166, 2167-2168, 2169-2170, 2171-2172, 2173-2174, 2175-2176, 2177-2178, 2179-2180, 2181-2182, 2183-2184, 2185-2186, 2187-2188, 2189-2190, 2191-2192, 2193-2194, 2195-2196, 2197-2198, 2199-2200, 2201-2202, 2203-2204, 2205-2206, 2207-2208, 2209-2210, 2211-2212, 2213-2214, 2215-2216, 2217-2218, 2219-2220, 2221-2222, 2223-2224, 2225-2226, 2227-2228, 2229-2230, 2231-2232, 2233-2234, 2235-2236, 2237-2238, 2239-2240, 2241-2242, 2243-2244, 2245-2246, 2247-2248, 2249-2250, 2251-2252, 2253-2254, 2255-2256, 2257-2258, 2259-2260, 2261-2262, 2263-2264, 2265-2266, 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4087-4088, 4089-4090, 4091-4092, 4093-4094, 4095-4096, 4097-4098, 4099-4100, 4101-4102, 4103-4104, 4105-4106, 4107-4108, 4109-4110, 4

- [illegible]

- [illegible]

171. *It was a very long time before the king returned to the city.* (100% correct)
172. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
173. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
174. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
175. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
176. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
177. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
178. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
179. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
180. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
181. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
182. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
183. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
184. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
185. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
186. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
187. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
188. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
189. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
190. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
191. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
192. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
193. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
194. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
195. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
196. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
197. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
198. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
199. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)
200. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.* (100% correct)

Exercise 10.1.1: Grammar: The King and the Queen

1. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.*
2. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.*
3. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.*
4. *The king was very angry when he heard that the queen had died.*

50. DDC, NHA, DND - Resolution Section - DND Historical File Collection - Ottawa, file 886/6-1-838, 1 Letter to R. E. Dwyer, 28 March 1965. [NAC 000000] DND - Resolution Section - DND Historical File Collection - Ottawa, file 838/6-1-837, volume 3, G. S. Lappin to Indian Affairs, 28 March 1965. [NAC 000079]
51. DDC, NHA, Government of Northwest Territories - Education, Culture and Employment, Hindsdale School, 1972-1985, Box 1000, box 5, H. R. Cross to Indigenes, 22 March 1973. [RDS 00000]
52. DDC, NHA, Government of Northwest Territories Archives, Papir Residence - General, 1978-1979, Archival box 3-1, Archival box 6, 1985-88, 1 Billington to Department of Education, 27 October 1978. [RDS 000001 0000]
53. DDC, NHA, DND - Resolution Section - DND Historical File Collection - Ottawa, file 271/6-1-834, volume 4, Michael Minor to A. George, 15 May 1975. [NAC 000001 0000]
54. DDC, NHA, No document location, no document description, Keith Newman, "Fire & Ice in 2" [How of Beyond Side] (The Journal), Volume 4, Number 24, 18 October 1986. [RDS 000000]

Appendix 2: Online Findings destroyed by fire: 1967 to 1997

1. Canada, *Annual Report of the Department of Indian Affairs*, 1989, 15.
2. Canada, *Annual Report of the Department of Indian Affairs*, 1984, 150.
3. DDC, NHA, Canada, *Annual Report of the Department of Indian Affairs*, 1986, 187. [R.E. 000000]
4. DDC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RC 38, volume 3028, file 17006-1, Magnus Dugg to Indian Commissioner, 13 October 1986. [R.E. 000079]
5. DDC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RC 38, volume 3479, file 800-5, part 1, Extract of a letter of the Principal of the St. Mary's Mission School, dated 22 May 1986. [NAC 000000]
6. Canada, *Annual Report of the Department of Indian Affairs*, 1985, 422.
7. DDC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RC 38, volume 2771, file 15085, part 1, E. F. Cameron to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 15 May 1985. [R.E. 000528]
8. DDC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RC 38, volume 2771, file 15085, part 1, E. F. Cameron to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 22 June 1985. [R.E. 000528]
9. Canada, *Annual Report of the Department of Indian Affairs*, 1984, 424.
10. Canada, *Annual Report of the Department of Indian Affairs*, 1985, 485.
11. Canada, *Annual Report of the Department of Indian Affairs*, 1986, 389.
12. DDC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RC 38, volume 6205, file 800-5, part 1, 1 To McLeod to E. E. George, 22 November 1987. [NAC 000088]
13. DDC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RC 38, volume 5873, file 472/21-5, part 1, "Agent's Report regarding Duck Lake Boarding School for the Month of September 1983" [NAC 000070]
14. DDC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RC 38, volume 6206, file 800-5, part 3, S. R. McVey to Thomas Campbell Scott, 4 June 1987. [NAC 000000]
15. DDC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RC 38, volume 6256, file 750-1, part 1, P. H. Coulton to Ch. Wongan, 2 April 1991. [R.E. 000000]
16. DDC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RC 38, volume 6255, file 600-4, part 1, W. M. Coulton to Indian Affairs, 11 December 1991. [R.E. 000000]

17. TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6369, file 763-5, part 2, T. B. R. Westgate to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 15 December 1925. [CYP-000544]
18. TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6191, file 462-5, part 2, T. B. R. Westgate to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 30 June 1926; [CRS-001190-0000] RG10, volume 6306, file 652-5, part 3, W. M. Graham to Duncan C. Scott, 5 May 1926. [SMD-001611]
19. Coopers, "St. Michael's Indian residential school," 147.
20. TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6365, file 751-5, part 2, 1922-1930, W. E. Goffman to Duncan C. Scott, 17 September 1928. [HQJ-000674]
21. Jenson, "Power, Resistance," 118.
22. TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6318, file 657-5, part 2, I. W. Wachly to W. M. Graham, 29 July 1931. [MND-000663-0001]
23. TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6318, file 657-1, part 1, A. F. MacKenzie to J. Poulin, 13 August 1931. [MND-000670]
24. TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG35, Perms, volume 1883, file 630/219-2, part 2, Shingle Point Anglican School 1932, FA 85-8, A. L. Fleming to Chairman, Dominion Lands Board, 18 January 1934. [SPJ-000206]
25. TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6316, file 656-5, part 5, T. B. R. Westgate to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 29 March 1934. [PAR-000946]
26. TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6252, file 575-5, part 4, R. G. Lazenby to Secretary Indian Affairs, 23 April 1934. [RIR-000200]
27. TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, volume 6297, file 653-5, part 4, A. F. McKenzie to G. A. Duchs, 15 March 1935. [FHR-001336]
28. TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6444, file 881-5, part 5, 1933-1938, Microfilm reel C-8708, R. H. Moore to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 21 October 1935. [LJ-001638-0000]
29. TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6475, file 916-5, part 1, G. Dreyer to H. McGH, 31 January 1936. [FRJ-010052]
30. TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6475, file 916-5, part 1, Extract from Radioteletype from Dr. Bourget, Resolute, N.W.T., 27 December 1935. [FRJ-010048]
31. TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6113, file 351-5, part 1, J. O. Proulx, 2 November 1938. [FTG-000505]
32. TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6198, file 465-5, part 7, Frank Edwards to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 29 December 1938. [KNR-000079]
33. TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6322, file 658-5, part 7, L. T. Hill to Secretary Indian Affairs, 28 February 1939. [PAR-001067-0000]
34. TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6198, file 465-5, part 7, Frank Edwards, 5 January 1939. [KNR-000066]
35. TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6445, file 881-10, part 5, Lejac Residential School General Report, 31 March 1940. [LJ-002066]
36. TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6444, file 881-5, part 6, 1938-1941, Microfilm reel C-8708, R. Howe to D. M. MacKay, 24 October 1940. [LJ-003150]
37. TRC, NHA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6453, file 884-5, part 5, 1936-1941, Eastern Agency - Kootenay Residential School - Building Maintenance - Supplies - Accounts, FA 10-17, Microfilm reel C-8775, NAC, Ottawa, D. M. MacKay to Secretary Indian Affairs, 21 May 1941. [FCN-004992]

38. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6443, file 881-1, part 2, R. Howe to Sir, 2 December 1942. [LEJ-000814]
39. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6033, file 150-61, part 1, Philip Phelan to Mr. Hoey, 1 May 1945. [NRD-001525]
40. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6370, file 763-5, part 6, Director to Acting Deputy Minister, 24 October 1946. [CYP-000862]
41. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6278, file 584-5, part 13, I. Waite to Indian Affairs, 14 February 1948. [SHR-001426]
42. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6319, file 657-5, part 8, R. S. Davis to Indian Affairs, 17 May 1948. [MDD-006126]
43. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6333, file 661-5, part 6, W. J. D. Kerley to Indian Affairs, 21 May 1949. [RLS-000493]
44. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6333, file 661-5, part 6, W. J. D. Kerley to J. P. B. Ostrander, 20 October 1950. [RLS-000533-0001]
45. TRC, NRA, The Presbyterian Church in Canada Archives, Toronto, ON. Acc. 1988-7004, box 14, file 10, T. C. Ross to Norman Paterson, 6 February 1951. [CJC-007763]
46. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 8252, file 479/6-1-001, part 4, J. Stallwood to Indian Affairs, 27 January 1955. [TAY-003768]
47. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 8275, file 494/6-1-014, part 5, Eric L. Barrington to G. Swartman, 23 February 1957. [PLK-000496-0002]
48. TRC, NRA, INAC - Resolution Sector - IRS Historical Files Collection - Ottawa, file 74/6-1-353, volume 2, H. Larivière to R. F. Davey, 7 February 1956. [AIR-000121]
49. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 8709, file 965/6-1, part 8, 1959, Microfilm reel C-14168, G. E. Kelly to W. E. Grant, 3 March 1959. [LEJ-004875-0001]
50. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG85, volume 1295, file 311/111-B, part 4, School Buildings - Fort Simpson, N.W.T. [Construction and Maintenance], 1959-1961, P. Templeton to S. Lesage, 31 July 1959. [FNU-001033]
51. Provincial Archives of Alberta, Oblate Accession, 71.220, Tome II, box 7, 22 November 1963, cited in Persson, "Blue Quills," 184.
52. TRC, NRA, INAC - Resolution Sector - IRS Historical Files Collection - Ottawa, file 672/6-1-007, volume 3, Fire Loss Report, P. A. Residential School, D. Lawson, 23 June 1967. [PAR-003379-0001]
53. TRC, NRA, INAC - Main Records Office - Ottawa, file 989/40-3-2, volume 1, Fire Losses - Individual Cases - Williams Lake District, 01/1958-12/1970, locator H77, DIAND, HQ Central Registry, R. G. Cooper to Indian Commissioner, British Columbia, 19 October 1967. [JOE-019175-0000]

Appendix 4: Additional reported fires that did not destroy buildings: 1867 to 1997

1. Wasylow, "History of Battleford Industrial School," 68.
2. Shanahan, *Jesuit Residential School*, 28.
3. E. F. Wilson, Autobiographical Journal, 47, quoted in Porter, "Anglican Church," 33.
4. Miller, *Shingwanuk's Vision*, 368-369.

5. Canada, *Annual Report of the Department of Indian Affairs, 1896*, 386.
6. Canada, *Annual Report of the Department of Indian Affairs, 1899*, 405.
7. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 3920, file 116818, Public Archives, David Laird to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 28 December 1899; [EDM-009798] RG18, volume 295, file 271-05, 1900-1905, NAC, J. R. Huddle to Officer Commanding, 19 July 1900. [EDM-002395]
8. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6251, file 575-1, part 1, G. H. Wheatley to David Laird, 13 March 1901. [BIR-000015]
9. Titley, "Industrial Education," 397-398.
10. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6206, file 468-5, part 2, T. T. George to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 29 June 1906. [MER-000395]
11. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 3925, file 116823-1A, Principal Wilson to David Laird, 19 March 1908. [ELK-000217]
12. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6206, file 468-5, part 2, Secretary, Indian Affairs to T. T. George, 30 January 1908. [MER-000394]
13. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6027, file 117-1-1, part 1, S. Spencer Page to The Secretary, Department of Indian Affairs, 25 March 1913. [CRW-000045]
14. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6431, file 877-1, part 1, Agent's Report For Month of November 1913, Chas. A. Cox, 3 December 1913. [ABR-006993]
15. Marceau-Kozicki, "Onion Lake," 129.
16. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6327, file 660-1, part 1, W. M. Graham to Secretary Indian Affairs, 8 June 1914. [PLD-007452]
17. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6364, file 760-1, part 1, 1892-1936, Microfilm reel C-8717, George H. Race to the Secretary, 18 January 1917. [SAL-000088]
18. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6305, file 652-1, part 1, P. Schmidt to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 17 September 1917. [SMD-001235]
19. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6426, file 875-1, part 2, W. E. Ditchburn to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 22 January 1918. [MIK-002569]
20. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6206, file 468-5, part 4, S. R. McVitty to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 14 July 1922. [MER-000674]
21. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6444, file 881-5, part 2, 1922-1924, Microfilm reel C-8767, N. Coccola to McAllan, 6 August 1923. [LEJ-003744-0001]
22. TRC, NRA, English Language Summary of the Fort Resolution Chronicles, volume 1, 1903-1942, 38. [GNN-000077-0001]
23. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6426, file 875-1, part 2, J. D. McLean to W. M. Halliday, 3 October 1924. [MIK-002612]
24. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6252, file 575-5, part 2, "Extract from Agent's Report on the Birtle Residential School, for the month of February, 1925," P. G. Lazenby. [BIR-000070]
25. TRC, NRA, Deschatelets Archives, Oblates of Mary Immaculate, Ottawa, file L1027.M27L.121, Principal Cowessess Indian Residential School, to Russell T. Ferrier, 16 March 1926. [MRS-006020]
26. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6219, file 472-5, part 2, Russell Ferrier to Dr. Scott, 9 June 1927. [MCI-000243]
27. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6355, file 757-1, part 1, 1886-1927, Indian Agent, Department of Indian Affairs, Morley to Russell T. Ferrier, 1 November 1927. [MOR-005523]

28. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6321, file 658-5, part 4, "Statement of George Peechow, Age 17 Years in connection with an outbreak of fire at the Anglican Indian School, Onion Lake Sask., on Friday evening at 8 o'clock p.m. Feb. 10th 1928." [PAR-017008-0001]
29. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada - Ottawa, RG10, volume 6468, file 890-1, part 1, J. D. McLean to A. O'N. Daunt, 6 October 1928. [MIS-001505]
30. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6267, file 580-5, part 4, W. M. Graham to Secretary Indian Affairs, 24 December 1929. [DRS-000572-0000]
31. TRC, NRA, English Language Summary of the Fort Resolution Chronicles, volume 1, 1903-1942, 56. [GNN-000077-0001]
32. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6345, file 751-1, part 1, Microfilm reel C-8701, W. M. Graham to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 27 September 1929. [BQL-001728]
33. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6270, file 582-5, part 3, Report Re Fire at Camperville, Manitoba, Thomas Baird, 24 November 1930. [PCR-000124]
34. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6322, file 658-5, part 5, T. B. R. Westgate to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 28 August 1930. [PAR-015011-0000]
35. TRC, NRA, Anglican Church of Canada, General Synod Archives, Minutes of the Meetings of Indian Residential School Commission MSCC, 01/1930-11/1932, Accession GS 75-103, series 2:15[a], box 18, "Minutes of Meeting of Indian Residential School Commission, MSCC, Held on Tuesday, April 7, 1931," 5. [AGS-000145]
36. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6346, file 751-5, part 4, 1932-1933, NAC, W. E. Gullion to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 3 December 1932. [BQL-006214-0000]
37. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6366, file 761-5, part 2, Bishop Guy to Harold W. McGill, 11 December 1933. [FVD-000726-0000]
38. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6366, file 761-5, part 2, Bishop Guy to Harold W. McGill, 11 December 1933. [FVD-000726-0000]
39. TRC, NRA, English Language Summary of the Fort Resolution Chronicles, volume 1, 1903-1942, 66. [GNN-000077-0001]
40. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 10413, Shannon File, box 45, M. Christianson to G. C. Laight, 26 September 1933. [CFT-004504]
41. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6357, file 757-5, part 4, 1935-1938, NAC, [Illegible] for T. R. L. MacInnes, to M. Christianson, 15 October 1935. [MOR-004448-0000]
42. TRC, NRA, Minutes of the Meetings of Indian Residential School Commission MSCC, 02/35-05/38, pg. 1902-2256, Accession GS 75-103, series 2:15[a], box 19, Minutes of Meeting of Indian Residential School Commission, MSCC, held on Tuesday, May 14, 1935. [AGS-000529]
43. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6055, file 265-5, part 4, J. P. Mackey, 20 November 1936. [SRS-001501]
44. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6215, file 470-5, part 3, H. McGill to Superintendent General, Indian Affairs, 6 October 1936. [PLK-000124]
45. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6357, file 757-5, part 4, 1935-1938, NAC, W. Barr Murray to C. Pant. Schmidt, 25 July 1938. [MOR-004509-0001]
46. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6444, file 881-5, part 6, 1938-1941, A. R. Simpson to D. M. MacKay, 25 September 1939. [LEJ-002960-0001]
47. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, Kwawkwalth Agency - Alert Bay Residential School - Building Maintenance - Supplies and Accounts, 1937-1939, FA 10-17, volume 6428, file

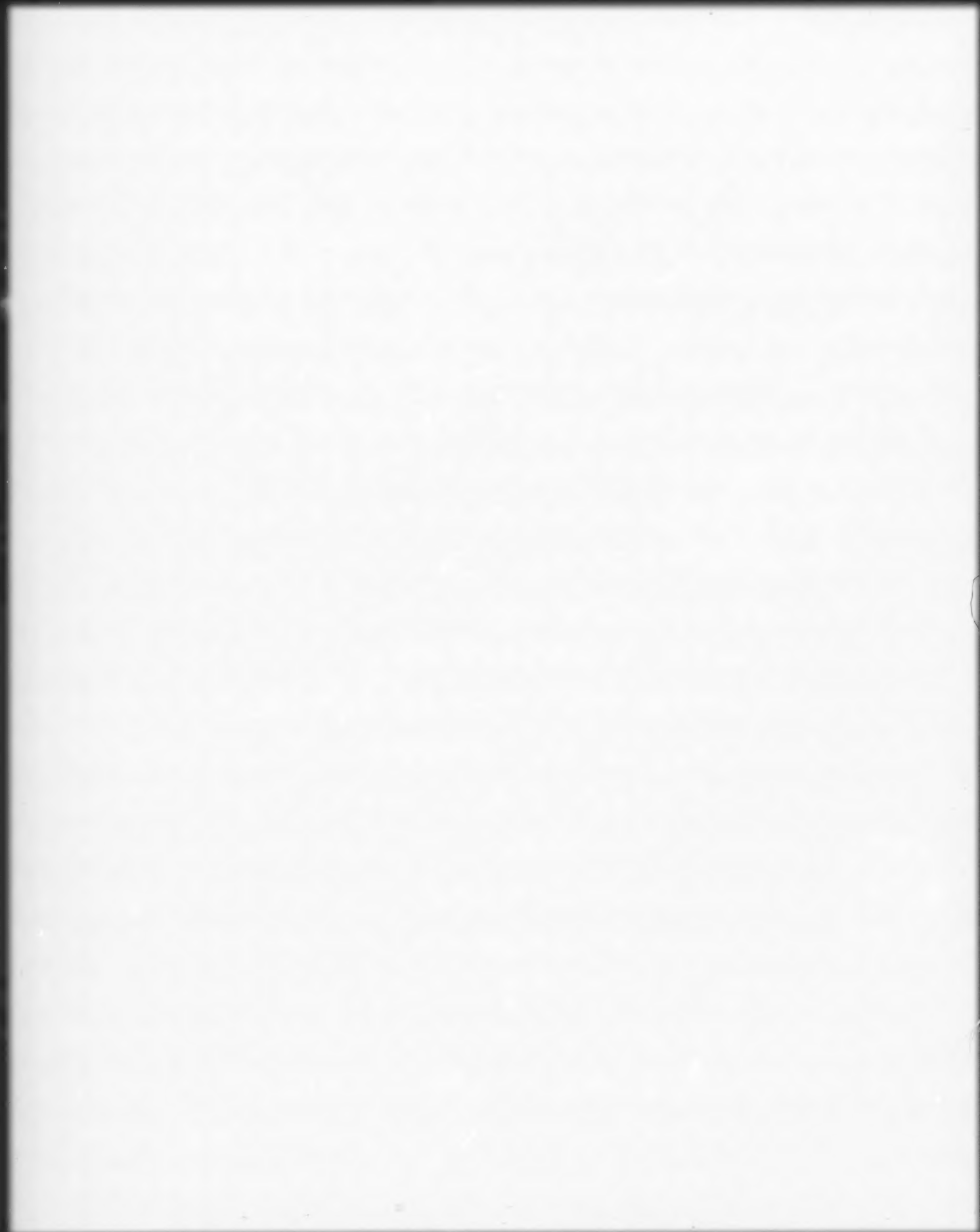
- 875-5, part 6, National Archives of Canada - Ottawa, M. S. Todd to Secretary, Department of Indian Affairs, 14 June 1939. [MIK-013732]
48. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6444, file 881-5, part 6, 1938-1941, Microfilm reel C-8768, J. H. F. Lacey to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 26 September 1939. [LEJ-002940]
 49. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6266, file 579-5, part 9, E. McPherson to Indian Affairs, 5 November 1941. [FAR-000024]
 50. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, volume 6303, file 653-5, part 6, E. S. Jones to The Secretary, Indian Affairs Branch, Department of Mines and Resources, 10 April 1942. [FHR-000252]
 51. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 10752, Shannon File, 1944, Misc. Outgoing Correspondence, E. Matters to Indian Affairs, 2 February 1944. [CRS-001610]
 52. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6033, file 150-61, part 1, Memorandum to Mr. Hoey, Philip Phelan, 1 May 1945. [NRD-001525]
 53. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 10759, Shannon File, 1946-1947, Incoming Correspondence re Education, H. A. Alderwood to E. Matters, 7 March 1947; [CRS-001655] Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6192, file 462-5, part 8, E. Matters to Indian Affairs, 5 March 1947. [CRS-001947]
 54. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, [110]774/6-1-753, volume 1, 09/45-12/53, NAC, E. A. Robertson to Indian Affairs, 1 November 1948. [EDM-004918]
 55. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6192, file 462-5, part 9, Henry Cook to B. F. Neary, 4 March 1948. [CRS-001978-0001]
 56. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 8634, file 511/6-1-025, part 1, J. H. Staunton to R. S. Davis, 21 December 1951. [PCR-004748-0001]
 57. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada - Winnipeg, RG10, Acc. W84-85/402, box 13662, file 511/23-5-082, volume 1, Lachlan McLean to J. Rayson, 21 September 1951. [PLP-100733]
 58. TRC, NRA, No document location, no document file source, Dennis Shea to F. O'Grady, 27 March 1954. [OBG-003722]
 59. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 8659, file 658/6-1, part 2, J. R. Bell to E. S. Jones, 7 April 1956. [BVL-000669-0001]
 60. TRC, NRA, INAC - Resolution Sector - IRS Historical Files Collection - Ottawa, 103/6-1-764, 01/58-06/59, volume 5, RCAP, J. E. DeWolf to K. R. Brown, 7 April 1958. [PUL-001821]
 61. TRC, NRA, Government of Northwest Territories Archives, file 630-145/10-2, part 3, Reports and Returns - Federal School Coppermine, N.W.T., 1958-1961, Archival box 246-9, Archival Acc. G-1979-003, T. K. Brady to Mr. Booth, 25 May 1959. [CPU-001435]
 62. TRC, NRA, INAC - Main Records Office - Ottawa, 779/6-1-011, volume 2, 1957-1971, CR-HQ, R. G. Whatmough for R. A. W. Switzer to Paul Deziel, 11 May 1960; [AGL-002253] Library and Archives Canada, 779[134]/6-726, volume 2, 10/59-08/61, NAC, J. W. Stewart to L. C. Hunter, 11 April 1960. [AGL-001337]
 63. TRC, NRA, INAC - Resolution Sector - IRS Historical Files Collection - Ottawa, file 675/6-2-018, volume 2, D. Greyeyes to Indian Affairs, Fire Loss Report, 22 June 1968. [GDC-005571]
 64. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG85, Perm. volume 1438, file 630/100-1, part 11, Govt. School Fort Smith, N.W.T. [Joseph Burr Tyrrell School] October 1962-November 1964, FA 85-4, R. G. Whatmough to B. Thorsteinsson, 29 April 1964. [FSU-001460-0000]
 65. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, file 801/6-1-011, volume 12, Carcross IRS, 01/1966-06/1969, RG10-151, V1989-90/101, M. C. F. Gibbs to A. E. Fry, 6 June 1966. [CAR-011275-0000]

66. TRC, NRA, Prairies - Northwest Regional Service Centre - LAC - Edmonton, Acc. E1996/97-046, box 7, file 674/25-2, W. Karashowsky to J. Bourbonnais, 31 October 1966. [BVL-002314-0000]
67. TRC, NRA, Government of Northwest Territories Archives, file 630.012, part 2, volume 2, Hostel Facilities - Churchill, 1965, Archival box 37-3, Archival Acc. M1984-009, R. L. Graves to Regional Superintendent of Schools, 31 January 1967. [CVC-002785-0000]
68. TRC, NRA, Government of Northwest Territories Archives, Acc. N1984-009, box 37-3, file 631.012, part 2, Statistics Fort Churchill, 1965, R. A. Page to Principal, Churchill Vocational Centre, 28 May 1967. [CVC-003198-0002]
69. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada - Burnaby, file 801/6-1-011, volume 12, Carcross IRS, 01/1966-06/1969, RG10-151, V1989-90/101, M. L. Lintick to G. S. Swanson, 6 March 1968. [CAR-011277-0003]
70. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada - Edmonton, RG10, Acc. E1996-97/415, box 36, file 25-2-029, Jan. 1967-Jan. 1969, E. Turenne to Walter Karawshowski, 6 May 1968. [SPR-003247]
71. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada - Winnipeg, RG10, Acc. 2001-01035-4, box 015, file 501/25-13-082G, volume 1, J. P. Malcolm to K. Baksh, 12 September 1974. [PLP-100393]
Library and Archives Canada - Winnipeg, RG10, Acc. 2001-01035-4, box 015, file 501/25-13-082G, volume 1, J. P. Malcolm to K. Baksh, 12 September 1974. [PLP-100393]
72. TRC, NRA, Government of Northwest Territories Archives, School - Fort Smith, 1972-1978, Archival box 2-17, Archival Acc. G1995-004, H. J. Darkes to H. Michaud, 17 October 1974. [BTU-001619]
73. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, 773/6-1-003, volume 5, 09/74-01/80, E. A. Fontana to R. J. Carney, 26 April 1976. [MRY-002243-0000]
74. TRC, NRA, INAC - Resolution Sector - IRS Historical Files Collection - Ottawa, file 675/25-13-1-019, volume 2, Paul Poitras to Indian Affairs, 25 March 1977; [PLD-009229] Paul Poitras to Indian Affairs, 24 April 1977; [PLD-009231] Charles Bellegarde to Indian Affairs, 7 May 1977; [PLD-009233] Paul Poitras to Indian Affairs, 25 June 1977; [PLD-009239] Ann Bellegarde to Indian Affairs, 15 September 1977; [PLD-009237] Allan Dickie, 19 April 1978. [PLD-009245]
75. TRC, NRA, Government of Northwest Territories Archives, Pupil Residence - General, 1974-1978, Archival box 3-3, Archival Acc. G1995-004, Marvin Marykuca to R. K. Toutant, 1 November 1977. [AHU-003894]
76. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada - Edmonton, Acc. E1996-97/270, box 8, file 675/25-13, volume 1, Joe Gerencser to David Seesequasis, 9 March 1979. [SMD-012138]
77. TRC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada - Burnaby, RG10, FA 10-137, v92-93/201, box 2 [10486], file 987/40-6-19, volume 1, Fire Safety Reports - St. Mary's, 09/75-10/80, NAC - Burnaby, L. MacKay to J. Allon, 31 October 1980. [MIS-010104]
78. TRC, NRA, INAC - Resolution Sector - IRS Historical Files Collection - Ottawa, GRS Files, box 140, file 3, Ronald J. Pratt, 24 October 1986. [GDC-005182-0001]
79. TRC, NRA, INAC - Resolution Sector - IRS Historical Files Collection - Ottawa, Muscowequan Box 23, file 23, Statement of Susan Start, 12 January 1993; [MDD-003931] Statement of [name redacted], 14 January 1993. [MDD-003932]
80. TRC, NRA, INAC - Resolution Sector - IRS Historical Files Collection - Ottawa, Muscowequan Box 23, file 23, Elaine Pelletier, 1 November 1993. [MDD-003933]

Appendix 5: School fires that were suspected or proven to be deliberately set: 1867 to 1997

1. Wilson, *Missionary Work*, 130–131, 142.
2. Stansham, *Jessett Residential School*, 28.
3. E. F. Wilson, *Anthropological Journal*, 47, quoted in Porter, "Anglican Church," 33.
4. Canada, *Annual Report of the Department of Indian Affairs*, 1886, 306.
5. Miller, *Shingwood's Vision*, 308–309.
6. Miller, *Shingwood's Vision*, 308.
7. TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 2771, file 154845, part 1, "Blaze at Brantford: The Mohawk Institute Totally Destroyed," in *The Globe*, story dated 19 April 1903; [TAY-003519] Martin Benson to Deputy Superintendent General, Indian Affairs, 21 April 1903; [TAY-003521]
8. TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 2771, file 154845, part 1, E. D. Cameron to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 15 May 1903; [TAY-003524]
9. TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 2771, file 154845, part 1, E. D. Cameron to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 22 June 1903; [TAY-003526]
10. Stanley, "Alberta's Half-Breed Reserves," 86–88.
11. TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6206, file 808-5, part 2, Secretary, Indian Affairs to T. T. George, 30 January 1906; [MIK-000204]
12. TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6027, file 117-1-1, part 1, S. Spencer Page to The Secretary, Department of Indian Affairs, 25 March 1913; [CRW-000045]
13. TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6305, file 652-1, part 1, H. Schmidt to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 17 September 1917; [SMI3-001235]
14. TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6426, file 875-1, part 2, W. E. Dieckhorn to Secretary, Indian Affairs, 22 January 1918; [MIK-002500]
15. TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6364, file 769-1, part 1, 1892–1936, Microfilm reel C-8717, George H. Race to the Secretary, 18 January 1917; [NAL-000008]
16. TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6426, file 875-1, part 2, W. M. Halliday to Dieckhorn, 17 January 1918; [MIK-000274]
17. TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6426, file 875-1, part 2, I. D. McLean to W. M. Halliday, 3 October 1924; [MIK-002612]
18. TBC, NRA, Deschatelets Archives, Oblates of Mary Immaculate, Ottawa, file L1027.M275.123, Principal Commisssary Indian Residential School, to Russell E. Fenton, 16 March 1925; [MIS-000020]
19. TBC, NRA, Library and Archives Canada, RG10, volume 6355, file 757-1, part 1, 1886–1927, Indian Agent, Department of Indian Affairs, Marley to Russell E. Fenton, 1 November 1927; [MOB-005223]
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Discography

6. Trade and Development of International Trade

The collection of this report, which contains the data on the trade and development of international trade, is the result of the efforts of the authors of the report. The data on the trade and development of international trade is the result of the efforts of the authors of the report. The data on the trade and development of international trade is the result of the efforts of the authors of the report.

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Wiederholungsfragen zum Thema: Kulturelle Identität Im Folgenden werden einige Fragen gestellt, die Sie bei der Bearbeitung der Aufgabenstellung unterstützen könnten. Bitte beachten Sie, dass diese Fragen nicht die einzigen sind, die Sie bei der Bearbeitung der Aufgabenstellung berücksichtigen sollten. Sie können auch eigene Fragen stellen, die Sie bei der Bearbeitung der Aufgabenstellung unterstützen könnten. Bitte beachten Sie, dass diese Fragen nicht die einzigen sind, die Sie bei der Bearbeitung der Aufgabenstellung berücksichtigen sollten. Sie können auch eigene Fragen stellen, die Sie bei der Bearbeitung der Aufgabenstellung unterstützen könnten.

[illegible]

There are several other factors that may contribute to the development of a child's language skills. For example, the child's environment, the quality of the parent-child relationship, and the child's own characteristics (such as intelligence and personality) can all play a role. Additionally, the child's exposure to language (through reading, conversation, and media) can also influence their language development. It is important to note that while there are many factors that can influence a child's language development, the most significant factor is the quality of the parent-child relationship. A warm, supportive, and language-rich environment is essential for a child to develop strong language skills.

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1. The first step in the process of developing a curriculum is to identify the needs of the students and the community. This involves conducting a needs assessment and identifying the gaps between the current state and the desired state.
2. The second step is to establish a vision for the curriculum. This involves defining the purpose and goals of the curriculum and identifying the key competencies and skills that students should acquire.
3. The third step is to select the content and materials for the curriculum. This involves choosing the topics, concepts, and skills to be taught and selecting the appropriate resources and materials to support learning.
4. The fourth step is to design the curriculum. This involves determining the sequence of topics, the length of each unit, and the methods of instruction and assessment.
5. The fifth step is to implement the curriculum. This involves delivering the curriculum to students and monitoring their progress and learning outcomes.
6. The sixth step is to evaluate the curriculum. This involves assessing the effectiveness of the curriculum and making adjustments as needed to improve the quality of the curriculum.
7. The seventh step is to revise the curriculum. This involves updating the curriculum to reflect changes in the field and the needs of the students and the community.
8. The eighth step is to disseminate the curriculum. This involves sharing the curriculum with other educators and stakeholders to promote its use and effectiveness.
9. The ninth step is to monitor and evaluate the curriculum. This involves ongoing assessment of the curriculum's impact and effectiveness to ensure it remains relevant and effective.
10. The tenth step is to provide feedback and support to educators. This involves offering guidance and resources to help educators implement the curriculum effectively.

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